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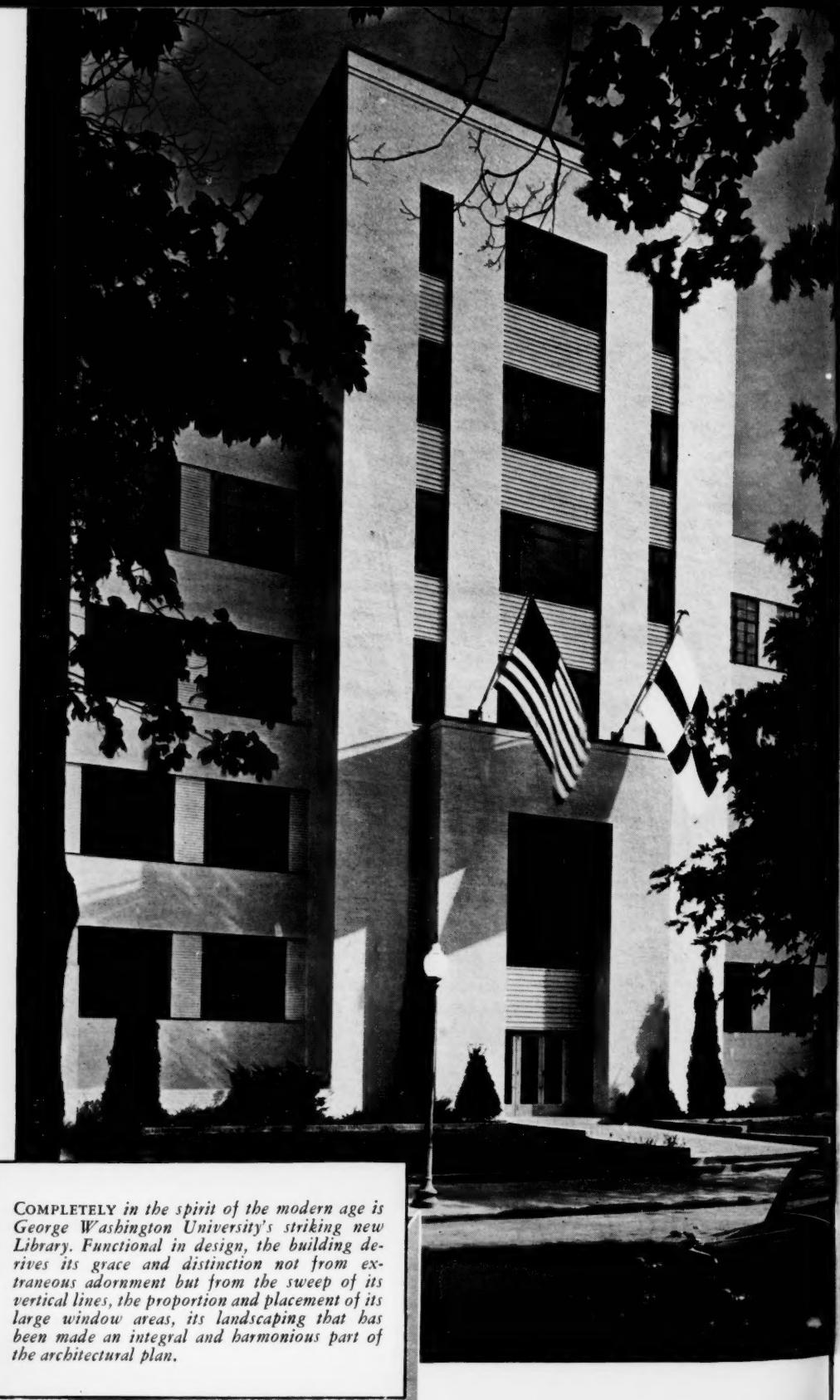
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COMPLETELY in the spirit of the modern age is George Washington University's striking new Library. Functional in design, the building derives its grace and distinction not from extraneous adornment but from the sweep of its vertical lines, the proportion and placement of its large window areas, its landscaping that has been made an integral and harmonious part of the architectural plan.

JOURNAL

of the

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION of COLLEGIATE REGISTRARS

FACTORS WHICH AFFECT ACHIEVEMENT AND ITS PREDICTION AT THE COLLEGE LEVEL

DANIEL D. FEDER

FOR PURPOSES of effective educational guidance, it is essential to have as complete a description as possible of all factors which aid in making predictions and in providing appropriate educational experiences for the individual student. Although there have been numerous studies of the predictive effectiveness of various tests and test batteries, little attention has been given to some of the factors which may influence students' performance on these tests and consequently the predictive validity of them. This study has attempted to isolate two such factors—size and type of high school and time lapse between high school graduation and college entrance—and determine their effects upon the ability and first year achievement of students in the College of Liberal Arts of the State University of Iowa.

SIZE AND TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL

The samples used were drawn from the freshman classes of the years 1929-1933 inclusive. The total number of students in each year ranged from 620 to 850. Data for the five-year period have been used to determine trends, where the differences may be meaningful for prediction, but not actually statistically significant. The Iowa Qualify-

ing Examinations—composed of the Iowa High School Content Examination, the Iowa Silent Reading Test, and the Mathematics Aptitude and English Training Tests of the Iowa Placement Examination Series—administered to all entering freshmen, were used as the measure of college aptitude.

In addition to the wide diversity in types of curricular offerings and quality of instruction among high schools, there are other factors such as socio-economic status of families, interests, motivation by high school teachers, etc., which operate to determine the number and quality of graduates of a given high school who will attend college. For purposes of this study, the following classification of high schools was made:

- A—enrolments of 350 and over
- B—enrolments of 150-349
- C—enrolments of 65-149
- D—enrolments of 1-64
- O—Out of state high schools
- P—Iowa parochial schools

Over the five-year period, the various high schools graduated approximately the following proportions:

- Size A—38%
- Size B—20%
- Size C—28%
- Size D—14%

However, the college freshman classes during the same period had the following approximate representations:

- From size A schools—50%
- From size B schools—27%
- From size C schools—16%
- From size D schools—7%

From this, it will be noted that the larger high schools contribute more than their expected share to the enrolment of the university. The consistently larger proportion of college freshmen who come from size B schools as compared with those who come from size C schools exactly reverses the expected proportions. The lower contribution from size C schools may be due to the fact that many such students are absorbed by the junior colleges, many of which are located in cities having size

C enrolments. The size D schools seem to fall short in their contribution to the university enrolment, suggesting that graduates of high schools in rural communities are not so strongly motivated to attend the university either by actual needs or by socio-economic demands.

Table 1 summarizes the college aptitude data for the five-year period with the freshmen classified according to the type of high school from which they were graduated. These data show the constitution of the groups as at the beginning of the first semester. Since new percentile norms were computed each year, the figures in parentheses for a given year are directly comparable with each other.

In terms of the composite score obtained by combining the four tests of the Freshman Qualifying Examinations, it was found each year that, as a group, the students from the larger high schools have a somewhat better chance for success in college work. There were no systematic differences in the variabilities of the groups. Graduates of out-of-state high schools were on the whole equal or superior to the graduates of the larger high schools of the state. However, in marked contrast, the graduates of parochial high schools were invariably much poorer college risks than any of the other groups.

Despite the fact that students from the larger high schools had an advantage in ability as shown on the Qualifying Examinations, their achievement did not exceed that of the other students in a commensurate degree. In fact, as will be seen in Table 2, in two of the years studied the average achievement of the graduates of the size C schools exceeded the averages of any of the other groups in the same years. Most typical in achievement are the graduates of the parochial schools whose average first semester achievement was significantly below the total class average in every year studied, a fact which was predicted from their performance on the Qualifying Examinations.

The greatest disparity found was between the ability level and achievement of the out-of-state students. As has been pointed out, in ability these students were equal or superior to the graduates of the larger high schools; yet in almost every year studied, their average achievement falls markedly below expectancy. As a result of the elimination of the less able students at the end of the first semester, the Qualifying Examination means for those who remained all tended to shift upward slightly with concomitant decreases in variability. This was reflected in somewhat improved second semester achievement in general, and especially among the groups from the smaller and paro-

TABLE I

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FRESHMAN QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS ACCORDING TO HIGH SCHOOL

TYPE OF SCHOOL	A			B			C			A.M.
	YEAR	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
1929	360.15 (54)*	91.35	242	339.15 (44)	100.45	127	316.40 (38)	87.15	89	363.75 (
1930	328.65 (54)	99.05	311	322.70 (52)	108.50	185	322.70 (52)	103.60	125	314.30 (
1931	470.40 (56)	132.30	243	459.20 (53)	121.80	125	441.00 (47)	122.15	84	431.65 (
1932	485.80 (50)	147.70	284	481.25 (49)	131.25	133	485.80 (50)	119.35	77	476.70 (
1933	513.10 (55)	137.55	329	473.20 (48)	131.95	207	491.40 (52)	141.05	97	477.75 (

* Figures in parentheses are the percentile equivalents of these mean scores.

chial high schools. Again, however, the out-of-state students exhibit a reversal. Although in ability composition they, too, showed improvement in the second semester, their actual achievement either stayed the same or decreased.

In variability of achievement, no meaningful differences were found among the groups. However, it is interesting to note that, although nearly all of them became less variable in ability in the second semester, the standard deviations of achievement showed a tendency to increase.

Although there is danger involved in averaging coefficients of correlation for different groups, the similarity of each specific group from year to year in mean and variability makes this procedure more per-

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF GRADE POINT AVERAGES

TYPE OF SCHOOL	A			B			C			A.M.
	YEAR	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
										Fir-
1929	1.95	.717	242	1.92	.710	127	1.72	.647	89	1.03
1930	2.07	.805	311	2.04	.707	185	1.97	.580	125	1.92
1931	2.07	.770	243	2.03	.722	125	1.94	.787	84	2.10
1932	2.10	.815	284	2.00	.782	133	2.08	.747	77	2.07
1933	2.12	.770	329	2.00	.690	207	2.05	.792	97	1.89
										Seco-
1929	1.93	.720	225	1.95	.785	111	1.77	.645	76	2.30
1930	2.14	.732	272	2.18	.612	161	2.22	.767	97	2.10
1931	2.10	.727	205	2.02	.752	109	2.03	.697	71	2.21
1932	2.13	.805	262	2.08	.785	119	2.21	.795	70	2.10
1933	2.12	.835	304	2.00	.722	190	2.14	.897	86	1.81

TABLE I
EXAMINATIONS UPON ENTRANCE TO THE UNIVERSITY—STUDENTS CLASSIFIED
HIGH SCHOOL OF GRADUATION

N	D			O			P		
	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
89	363.75 (55)	108.85	20	363.35 (55)	92.05	118	310.45 (35)	104.30	24
125	314.30 (49)	136.15	44	304.15 (45)	105.00	159	304.15 (45)	98.35	26
84	431.65 (44)	142.45	27	460.25 (53)	133.70	144	398.30 (33)	117.95	42
77	476.70 (48)	136.50	45	474.95 (47)	139.65	122	396.55 (30)	116.90	39
97	477.75 (41)	121.80	65	445.55 (49)	84.35	119	444.15 (41)	136.50	26

missible. Therefore, the predictive correlations were averaged in order to facilitate rapid summary. A detailed presentation of these coefficients is given in Table 3.

The average first semester prediction coefficients for the students of the various types of high schools were as follows: A = .61; B = .70; C = .65; D = .67; O = .57, P = .64. Although the differences noted here are small, in general, prediction for the students from size A schools was slightly less efficient than that of any of the other in-state groups. For the out-of-state students, the validity of the predictive tests is consistently lower than for any of the other groups.

TABLE II
STUDENTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO HIGH SCHOOL OF GRADUATION

N	D			O			P		
	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
Fir									
89	2.03	.1.03	20	1.87	.715	118	1.36	.822	24
125	1.92	.740	44	2.00	.640	159	1.70	.785	26
84	2.10	.897	27	2.06	.772	144	1.63	.707	42
77	2.07	.687	45	2.02	.635	122	1.61	.687	39
97	1.89	.672	65	1.96	.727	119	2.00	.670	26
Seco									
76	2.30	.857	18	1.87	.727	97	1.85	.807	17
97	2.10	.727	38	1.98	.752	136	1.92	.683	20
71	2.21	.757	25	2.11	.707	124	1.83	.792	36
70	2.10	.767	40	2.00	.670	101	1.80	.685	31
86	1.81	.782	61	1.94	.682	101	1.84	.732	25

TABLE 3
PREDICTION COEFFICIENTS—STUDENTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS

First semester predictions based on

TYPE OF SCHOOL	A			B			C			r
	YEAR	r	PE _r	N	r	PE _r	N	r	PE _r	
1929	.50	.03	242	.57	.04	127	.52	.05	89	.79
1930	.54	.03	311	.62	.03	183	.69	.03	125	.48
1931	.62	.03	243	.71	.03	125	.65	.04	84	.72
1932	.70	.02	284	.88	.03	133	.65	.04	77	.78
1933	.67	.02	329	.72	.02	207	.76	.03	97	.57
Second semester predictions based on Qualifying Examination scores										
1929	.46	.04	225	.65	.04	111	.43	.06	76	.78
1930	.57	.03	272	.59	.03	161	.58	.05	97	.71
1931	.60	.03	205	.68	.04	109	.55	.05	71	.70
1932	.64	.03	262	.70	.03	119	.55	.06	70	.66
1933	.63	.02	304	.57	.03	190	.62	.05	86	.48
Second semester predictions based on First Semester Qualifying Examination scores										
1929	.78	.02	225	.77	.03	111	.74	.04	76	.95
1930	.77	.02	272	.79	.02	161	.88	.02	97	.87
1931	.77	.02	205	.80	.02	109	.78	.03	71	.68
1932	.86	.01	262	.82	.02	119	.84	.02	70	.83
1933	.78	.02	304	.84	.01	190	.77	.03	86	.83

Predictions of second semester achievement based upon first semester averages were more accurate than those yielded by Qualifying Examination scores, with the coefficients for all groups approaching a common level of about .80. This is definite evidence that each student tends to find his normal level of achievement early in his college career.

On the whole it may be said that there was more variation in size

TABLE 4
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF FRESHMAN QUALIFYING EXAMINATIONS ACCORDING TO INTERVAL

YEARS OUT	o			½-1			A.M.
	YEAR	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
1929	353.50 (51)*	94.85	488	345.30 (47)	92.05	148	349.65 (48)
1930	330.75 (54)	107.45	503	316.75 (50)	98.70	144	302.40 (44)
1931	458.85 (53)	134.05	421	437.50 (46)	123.20	117	434.35 (44)
1932	490.00 (51)	140.00	460	459.20 (43)	141.40	114	435.75 (37)
1933	499.80 (54)	136.50	578	471.10 (47)	135.80	161	436.00 (44)

* Figures in parentheses are the percentile equivalents of these mean scores.

TABLE I
SIFIED
ased on
ACCORDING TO HIGH SCHOOL OF GRADUATION
Qualifying Examination Scores

N	D			O			P		
	r	PE _r	N	r	PE _r	N	r	PE _r	N
89	.79	.05	20	.53	.05	118	.68	.04	24
125	.48	.08	44	.46	.04	159	.64	.08	26
84	.72	.07	27	.63	.04	144	.61	.07	42
77	.78	.04	45	.61	.04	122	.69	.06	39
97	.57	.06	65	.63	.04	119	.60	.09	26
ased on Qualifying Examination Scores									
76	.78	.06	18	.29	.06	97	.55	.05	17
97	.71	.05	38	.36	.05	136	.58	.10	20
71	.70	.07	25	.48	.05	124	.51	.08	36
70	.66	.06	40	.57	.05	101	.46	.10	31
86	.48	.07	61	.48	.05	101	.43	.11	25
ased on First Semester Grades									
76	.95	.02	18	.67	.04	97	.87	.02	17
97	.87	.03	38	.77	.02	136	.91	.02	20
71	.98	.01	25	.80	.02	124	.66	.06	36
70	.83	.03	40	.83	.02	101	.71	.06	31
86	.83	.03	61	.79	.03	101	.78	.05	25

of predictive coefficients from year to year in any given group than there was among all groups in any one year. The marked tendency toward the general improvement of the coefficients of correlation in the latter years may be attributed, for the most part, to improved methods of evaluating student achievement by the increased use of objective measurement.

TABLE II
EXAMINATIONS UPON ENTRANCE TO THE UNIVERSITY—STUDENTS CLASSIFIED
G TO INTERVAL OUT

N	1½-2			2½-3			3½+		
	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N
48	349.65 (48)	98.70	76	318.05 (37)	99.40	27	368.90 (58)	94.15	41
44	302.40 (44)	100.80	59	335.30 (56)	88.90	20	322.70 (52)	97.65	51
17	434.35 (44)	112.35	39	424.20 (41)	100.10	43	497.35 (64)	129.50	33
14	435.75 (37)	142.80	38	432.25 (37)	152.25	23	461.65 (44)	129.15	36
51	450.00 (44)	131.25	63	476.35 (48)	115.85	23	473.20 (48)	154.35	29

INTERVAL BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION AND COLLEGE ENTRANCE

Most college instruction proceeds upon the tacit assumption that all students are equal in ability, approximately equally conditioned by past experiences, and therefore equally able to profit from the learning opportunities offered in higher education. Yet, in this five year study fewer than two-thirds of the typical entering class of freshmen came directly to college from high school. The other 30 to 40 per cent had been out of school contacts for periods ranging from one-half to fifteen or more years.

Employing the same samples, the previous part of this study was paralleled, basing the controls upon the length of the interval between high school graduation and college entrance, and classifying the groups as follows:

- Out no school term, representing about 65% of the total;
- Out $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year, representing about 15% of the total;
- Out $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years, representing about 8% of the total;
- Out $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years, representing about 5% of the total;
- Out $3\frac{1}{2}$ years and over, representing about 7% of the total.

The data in Table 4 indicate that, in terms of Freshman Qualifying Examination scores, the most consistent, and in general, superior students are those who came directly to college from high school. The group who were out $3\frac{1}{2}$ years and over, for the five year period, had an average almost as high as that of the previously cited group, but showed greater variability in mean score from year to year. The other three groups were markedly lower in ability with a slight advantage existing for the group out one-half to one year. Mortality at the end of the first semester ranged from 5 to 8 per cent for the groups who came directly to college; losses for the other groups were not as consistent but were considerably larger, ranging from 8 to 20 per cent. In one year, the group out $3\frac{1}{2}$ years and over lost 50 per cent whereas, in most years, this group lost only about 20 per cent. Due to the elimination of students of poorer ability at mid-year, nearly all groups tended to increase in average ability and decrease in variability.

Table 5 shows that in the first semester the average achievement of the groups who came directly to college, those out $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year, and those out $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years correspond almost exactly to the predictions based on their ability measures. However, the groups out

TABLE 5
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF GRADE POINT AVERAGES—STUDENTS
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO INTERVAL OUT

YEARS OUT	0				½-1				1½-2				2½-3				3½+			
	YEAR	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N	A.M.	σ	N										
<i>First Semester</i>																				
1929	2.02	.782	488	1.85	.752	148	1.93	.810	76	1.91	.762	27	2.24	.850	41					
1930	2.02	.752	503	1.98	.725	144	1.84	.740	59	2.22	.700	33	2.35	.592	51					
1931	1.95	.777	421	2.06	.742	117	1.82	.755	39	2.21	.647	43	2.62	.780	33					
1932	2.06	.775	460	1.92	.752	114	1.92	.627	38	1.98	.597	23	2.14	.800	36					
1933	2.08	.735	578	2.01	.712	161	2.13	.747	63	2.08	.725	23	2.42	.780	29					
<i>Second Semester</i>																				
1929	2.04	.762	446	1.92	.780	135	1.99	.612	64	2.12	.660	23	2.45	.860	36					
1930	2.14	.712	445	1.99	.797	127	2.03	.732	49	2.17	.735	20	2.35	.685	25					
1931	2.02	.747	377	2.10	.692	100	1.83	.722	36	2.16	.655	37	2.42	.740	28					
1932	2.11	.787	430	2.08	.725	99	1.87	.972	31	1.90	.570	20	2.27	.610	27					
1933	2.01	.800	531	1.98	.750	149	2.13	.810	56	2.07	.795	16	2.51	.617	25					

2½ to 3 years, in general lowest in ability, as measured by the Qualifying Examinations, showed achievement slightly superior to that of the group coming directly to college. With their average achievement exceeding their average prediction by almost 20 percentiles, the group out 3½ years and over were notably superior to all other groups.

Concomitant with the elimination of students of poorer ability, grade point averages for all groups tended to rise slightly in the second semester, but the relative positions noted in the first semester still obtained. The tendency toward increased variability in second semester achievement, found in the previous analysis dealing with size of high school, was again observed.

The procedure of averaging first semester prediction coefficients was again employed, yielding the following figures for the five years studied: Out no school term = .69; out ½ to 1 year = .61; out 1½ to 2 years = .68; out 2½ to 3 years = .53; out 3½ years and over = .67. The detailed data are presented in Table 6.

The somewhat lower coefficients for the 2½ to 3 years out group may be understood in view of the unexpected superiority of their achievement over their predicted grade averages. However, a similar superiority was observed for the 3½ years and over group; yet their prediction coefficients were of similar magnitude to those of the groups out of school contacts for the shorter periods. These data suggest that the unpredicted superiority of achievement of the 3½ years and over

TABLE 6
PREDICTION COEFFICIENTS—STUDENTS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING
TO INTERVAL OUT
First semester predictions based on Qualifying Examination Scores

YEARS OUT	0			$\frac{1}{2}$ -1			$\frac{1}{2}$ -2			$\frac{1}{2}$ -3			$\frac{3}{2}$ +1		
	YEAR	r	PE _r	N	YEAR	r	PE _r	N	YEAR	r	PE _r	N	YEAR	r	PE _r
1929	.64	.02	488	.56	.04	148	.61	.05	76	.49	.10	27	.78	.04	41
1930	.66	.02	503	.50	.04	144	.61	.05	59	.63	.07	33	.61	.06	51
1931	.69	.02	421	.78	.02	117	.74	.04	39	.44	.08	43	.66	.09	33
1932	.73	.01	460	.60	.04	114	.71	.05	38	.67	.09	23	.66	.06	36
1933	.71	.01	578	.62	.03	161	.74	.06	63	.44	.11	23	.62	.08	29
Second semester predictions based on Qualifying Examination Scores															
1929	.49	.02	446	.66	.03	135	.44	.07	64	.37	.12	23	.61	.07	36
1930	.57	.02	445	.48	.05	127	.45	.08	49	.52	.11	20	.61	.09	31
1931	.48	.03	377	.64	.04	100	.80	.05	36	.12	.11	37	.42	.10	28
1932	.67	.02	430	.67	.04	99	.43	.10	31	.61	.10	20	.43	.11	27
1933	.62	.02	531	.58	.04	149	.54	.06	56	.66	.09	16	.43	.11	25
Second semester predictions based on First Semester Grades															
1929	.80	.01	446	.82	.02	135	.75	.04	64	.85	.04	23	.87	.03	36
1930	.82	.01	445	.79	.02	127	.89	.02	49	.84	.04	20	.97	.01	31
1931	.85	.01	377	.89	.02	100	.76	.05	36	.63	.07	37	.63	.07	28
1932	.81	.01	430	.83	.02	99	.76	.05	31	.65	.09	20	.87	.03	27
1933	.83	.01	531	.74	.02	149	.77	.03	56	.69	.08	16	.71	.07	25

group was a rather systematic characteristic of almost every student in the group, whereas for the $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years out group the divergences between prediction and achievement seem to have been of a more random nature. These differences are again reflected in the averaged correlations between first and second semester achievement which were as follows: Out no school term = .82; out $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year = .81; out $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years = .79; out $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years = .73; out $3\frac{1}{2}$ years and over = .81. From these data it appears that the processes of educational adjustment for the groups out $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years are more complex than those of the other groups.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Data on the ability and achievement of five successive freshman classes in the College of Liberal Arts at the State University of Iowa were studied to determine the guidance value of information concerning the size and type of high school from which students come, and the effects of the time lapse between high school graduation and college entrance. It was found that:

- (1) The larger in-state high schools contributed a greater proportion of the college enrolment than would be expected in terms of their number of graduates;
 - (2) Students from the larger and out-of-state high schools were best equipped for college in terms of their status on the Freshman Qualifying Examinations;
 - (3) Graduates of parochial schools were the poorest college risks in terms of ability and showed poorest achievement;
 - (4) Out-of-state students did not achieve in keeping with their superior ability;
 - (5) The graduates of the smaller in-state schools seemed to be less well prepared for college as indicated by their Qualifying Examination scores. However, their subsequent achievement records suggest that they were able to overcome this apparent handicap;
 - (6) Prediction coefficients for first semester and first year were consistently lower for out-of-state students and graduates of the larger high schools;
 - (7) From 30 to 40 per cent of each entering class of freshmen for the five years studied were out of school contacts from $\frac{1}{2}$ to over 15 years;
 - (8) The students coming directly from high school seemed to have best preparation for college as measured by the Qualifying Examinations;
 - (9) Though the students who were out of school contacts longest seemed to be about equal in ability to the group who came directly to college, in actuality they were better as is evidenced by their markedly superior achievement;
 - (10) Students out of school contacts $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 years showed poorest achievement in their first year in college; those out of school $2\frac{1}{2}$ years and more achieved grade averages notably in excess of predictions made for them;
 - (11) Mortality was lowest among students who came directly to college from high school;
 - (12) First semester and first year predictions were least efficient for students who had been out of school $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 years; predictions for students out $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 year were slightly lower than the others;
 - (13) Best predictions of second semester achievement were based on first semester records.
- Bearing in mind the limitations imposed by the specific character-

istics of the situation in which this study was made, a number of implications may be derived from the foregoing data:

(a) There seem to be basic community differences in socio-economic and educational pressures which resulted in the unexpected distribution of proportions of high school graduates who attend the university. In view of such differences it is highly questionable whether high schools should be forced into rigid curricular patterns imposed by the necessity of meeting college entrance requirements, and thus neglect other needs of the major portion of their students;

(b) Students who migrate seem to have greater problems of adjustment in their first year at college as indicated by the marked divergence between ability and achievement. Study of the *reasons* for migration is needed;

(c) Parochial school graduates in this study enter the university under a severe handicap in ability and preparation. There is a suggestion here of a need for more careful guidance toward college;

(d) Students who come directly to college and those out longest seem to have best defined motivation for attending college.

(e) Students who have been out of school contacts over two years seem to suffer heavily from the effects of forgetting. Therefore, too much dependence cannot be placed upon their performance on achievement tests in an entrance battery;

(f) The fact that about one-third of a typical entering class of college freshmen do not come directly from high school suggests the need for study of their reasons for the interval as well as for attending college as a basis for determining how higher education may best meet the needs of its constituency.

—Volume 15, Number 2

COLLEGE STUDENT MORTALITY STUDIES

JOHN H. MCNEELY

THE PROSECUTION of scientific and valid college student mortality studies involves a number of complications. It is planned in this article to outline briefly procedures for the conduct of such studies that may serve to clarify these complications. The procedures presented are based in a large measure on a co-operative student mortality inquiry made by the U. S. Office of Education in which 25 universities participated.¹

In general, student mortality studies may be classified into two types, incomplete and complete studies. The former type is the one most commonly conducted and consists of only a part of the total enrolment of an institution. The method employed is to include a single class of freshman students registering for a degree at the beginning of a specified academic year.

On the other hand, a complete student mortality study comprises the entire enrolment of the institution. In conducting this type of study, it is necessary to include classes of freshman students entering each successive year together with all special, part-time and graduate students as well as students joining the different classes with advanced credits through transfer from other colleges. Hence, the latter type represents in reality an almost continuous study of student mortality since it must be extended over a fairly long period of time.

Complications are encountered in both types. Where the study is confined to a single class of freshman students registering for a degree at the beginning of a specified year, the method adopted is to trace the record and history of these students through their collegiate careers. It is found that students after entrance followed several different paths which may be grouped as follows:

(1) Those who dropped out of college without obtaining degrees during or at the end of the four-year period generally required for graduation;

(2) Those who continued beyond the four-year period without leaving college and then dropped out later before obtaining degrees;

¹ McNeely, John H., "College Student Mortality," United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. *Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 11, 112 p.

(3) Those who obtained degrees during or at the end of the four-year period or, after continuing beyond the four-year period without leaving college, obtained them later.

Having secured the number of students who followed the first and second paths it would appear that the percentage of student mortality for the class may be readily calculated. Moreover, upon securing the number of students who followed the third path the assumption may be made that the percentage of students for the class graduating with degrees may be similarly calculated.

Such percentages, however, are not valid. The percentage showing student mortality so derived represents a gross mortality. This is due to the fact that, of the students comprising the first group who dropped out of college during the four-year period, there were some who transferred to another institution upon leaving college. There were still others who, after dropping out, returned to college at a later date to continue their work.

The latter two groups of students did not withdraw from higher education permanently. A portion of them merely left the college in which they first matriculated and went to another institution to pursue their studies. Another portion, through force of circumstances, withdrew temporarily from the college to return later and continue their higher education. These students may be regarded as having been reclaimed rather than lost to higher education.

The necessity arises, therefore, of tracing further the history of each of these students. Of those who transferred to another institution, information must be obtained on the records made by them in the institutions to which they transferred. From such records the number who dropped out of these institutions without obtaining degrees and who graduated with degrees may be ascertained.²

An analogous check-up is necessary of the history of the students who left college and returned at a later date to continue their work. In some instances, these students dropped out of college during or at the end of a semester, remained absent from college a semester or longer, and then returned. Others will be found who dropped out of college two or three times during the four-year period. It will be discovered also that most of them were unable to secure their degrees at

² In the co-operative study conducted by the Office of Education, one university made a careful follow-up study of the records of students who transferred to other institutions.

the end of the regular four-year period, and therefore, were required to continue beyond that time, either leaving college permanently or obtaining their degrees at a later date.

Having obtained the actual number of those students who dropped out after transferring to other institutions and after returning to the college at a later date to continue their work, it is then possible to secure a valid student mortality figure. This number should be deducted from the total students dropping out of college without obtaining degrees during or at the end of the four-year period as described in the first group. The percentage calculated on this basis represents the net student mortality or final student mortality.

Correspondingly, in order to obtain an accurate figure on the students of the original freshman class graduating with degrees, it is necessary to secure the number who obtained degrees after transferring to other institutions. The number must also be secured of the students who left college and returned at a later date completing their work for graduation. By adding the number of these two groups of students to the number who obtained degrees during or at the end of the four-year period or who, after continuing beyond that period without leaving college, obtained them as shown in the third group, the total of students of the original freshman class graduating with degrees is available. The percentage of students graduating with degrees may then be readily calculated.

Practically the same procedure is employed in the prosecution of a complete student mortality study except that data must be collected on a much more comprehensive scale. Since the total enrolment is represented, the history of students in successive freshman classes must be carefully traced. With this information at hand comparisons may be made of the rate of student mortality from class to class and from year to year.

Such a study must also include the students who transferred into the institution with advanced credits thereby joining the several freshman classes in later years.³ Figures must be obtained on the number of these students who dropped out of college after transferring, and who remained to graduate with degrees. The collegiate careers of

³In the typical liberal arts college, it is found that at least one-tenth of the students start in one college and transfer to another. See Kelly, Fred J., "Continuity of College Attendance," United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. *Office of Education Bulletin*, 1937, No. 24, p. 12.

part-time and special students must also be traced. Many of these students did not originally register for degrees. Furthermore, they attended college intermittently over a long period of years before either ultimately dropping out or graduating with degrees. To secure accurate mortality figures on such students involves a task extending over considerable time. In the case of graduate students, it is necessary to include those originally registering for degrees; those dropping out and transferring to other institutions; those transferring from other colleges into the institution; and those dropping out and returning at a later date to continue their work.

So far, only procedures for ascertaining the extent of student mortality in the institutions have been discussed. There are other important phases of the subject. The value of a student mortality study is greatly enhanced by their inclusion. Among them are the causes responsible for students leaving college and the various factors exercising an influence on their withdrawal.

Data collected on the causes of students leaving college should be complete as far as possible. To accomplish this purpose, it is necessary to secure the information for each of these students. There are a number of difficulties that must be overcome. Some institutions make no provision for recording the causes of student withdrawals in their student or personnel records. In such case, this deficiency must be corrected so that the information may be available.⁴

A large number of the students drop out of college at the end of one of the academic years and fail to return at the opening of the following fall term without any notification to the institution. This difficulty may be overcome by contacting the former students through correspondence or questionnaire and requesting them to furnish the causes prompting them to drop out of college.⁵

The causes of students leaving college may be divided into two classes, tangible and intangible. Of the tangible causes, the most prominent are: dismissal for failure in academic work, dismissal for disciplinary reasons, deaths, sickness, financial difficulties, family moved from community in which college is located, marriage, and transfer

⁴ It was discovered in the Office of Education's study that, for the 25 universities as a whole, the institutions possessed no knowledge as to why 45 per cent of the students dropped out.

⁵ It is the practice of some institutions to make either through their registrar's office or alumni organization a systematic canvas of former students to discover why they failed to return to college.

to other institutions. Intangible causes include such terms as "unable to concentrate on work," "lack of interest," "inability to co-ordinate efforts," etc. In order to present full data on the question, the number of students dropping out of college for both tangible and intangible causes should be shown.

The discovery of the various factors exercising an influence on students withdrawing from college is of special importance. This is due to the fact that frequently these factors constitute the fundamental and primary reasons for certain students leaving college, although their departure has been attributed to the ordinarily recognized causes, such as failure in academic work and the like. Such factors may be personal, psychological, sociological and environmental.

Included among them are the age of entrance of the student, location of home of student, place for lodging, participation of student in extra-curricular activities, engagement of student in part-time work, academic load carried by student, and other similar factors. After collecting information on these various factors for the individual students leaving college, steps should be taken to show the relationship between each of them and student mortality. It is then possible to determine the extent to which the several factors operate in influencing the withdrawal of the students from college.

With the completion of a study involving the different phases, the required factual data will be at hand for determining the advisability of instituting changes in the activities of the institution in an effort to solve the problem of student mortality. Dependent upon the interpretation of the data, these changes may lead to the reorganization of the educational program, alteration of curricular offerings, modification of traditional methods of teaching, inauguration of new admission and graduation requirements, and readjustments of the collegiate environment of the students.

Before concluding, mention should be made of one of the important implications that may be drawn from student mortality studies. When the student mortality is heavy on the ground of academic failure it would appear that either the students dropping out of college do not possess the necessary qualifications to pursue successfully the academic program provided for them by the institution or the academic program, including curriculums, methods of instruction and other phases, is such as to lack the essential appeal to the interest of the students.

This issue raises questions not only of revising the methods of admitting students but also of changing the educational program. At the present time, students admitted to many of the colleges are registered in one or another of the varied four-year curriculums which lead to the bachelor's degree. Mortality studies in general show that the larger proportions of these students drop out in the first and second years.

By the introduction of one-year and two-year terminal curriculums leading to diplomas it is manifest that a large reduction in the student mortality could be effected. Under this arrangement the students would be protected from the stigma of having failed in college, a stigma frequently having a serious effect on their future lives. Changes in the educational program would naturally necessitate the development of a better plan of guiding students into the proper curriculums in which they are to register at the time of admission.

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FACTORS AFFECTING FUTURE TRENDS IN STUDENT ENROLMENT¹

NEWTON EDWARDS

AT A TIME like this, one must have unbounded self-assurance to be willing to predict the course of human events. And in no area of life is this more true than in the area of education. But baffling as the present is, some things we know and others we may reasonably expect. Certain it is that changes in our economy and in the pattern of our social arrangements have modified fundamentally the status of youth in American life. No one can doubt that the force of social change beating upon youth has created for them a novel, perplexing, and far too often, a tragic world. It should be equally clear, although it frequently is not, that many of the major problems of American education are defined by this changed status of youth and that the schools and colleges of this country will meet their social responsibility to the extent that they are successful in helping young people adjust to new and changing conditions. Future enrolments in college may be expected to reflect the shifting pattern of social and economic change; they will be influenced, too, by the policies which the colleges themselves adopt.

Trends in population growth will affect college enrolments in the future in a positive and in a fairly predictable way. It is essential, therefore, that we examine these trends in some detail.

The growth of population in this country during the past three centuries has been unparalleled in history. Increase in numbers has been due in part to immigration but more particularly to the high rate of national increase. Economic conditions and social attitudes during the Colonial period were conducive to a remarkable fertility among American women. From the middle of the seventeenth century to the Civil War population doubled on the average every 23.5 years, and it doubled again in the thirty-year period ending in 1890. During the next four decades the rate of population growth slowed down

¹ Paper presented before the meeting of the Illinois Association of College Registrars and the Chicago Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions; also published in the *Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions*, University of Chicago Press, 1939.

materially, although each succeeding decennial period showed an increase in absolute numbers. The increase in population of about seventeen million between 1920 and 1930 was the greatest for any single decade in our history.

This increase in absolute numbers has tended to obscure the declining fertility of the American people and to mask the fact that we are moving swiftly toward cessation of population growth. As a matter of fact, the small family pattern appeared in southern New England somewhat more than a century ago. It spread slowly into the Middle Atlantic states and into urban communities elsewhere. The custom of family limitation, however, is no longer confined to the northeast or to the urban population of native stock; it is being adopted to a greater or less degree by all elements of the population—native and foreign born, urban and rural, black and white, Protestant and Catholic. Already in such populous states as Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Illinois, Missouri, and California, fertility is not sufficient for family replacement. In fact, for the country as a whole the reproduction index is below unity; under prevailing conditions of fertility and mortality each thousand girl babies will not replace themselves by a thousand daughters; in balancing our population budget we are already in the red by four or five per cent. If present trends continue, within two or three decades we shall have established a population equilibrium and the population will remain stationary or begin to decline.

The widespread adoption of the small family pattern has resulted in a significant change in children and youth as a poulation element. In 1930 there were fewer children under five years of age than in 1920. The age group five to nineteen has been increasing in actual numbers, but for many years it has constituted a decreasing percentage of the total population. On the basis of median estimates of fertility and mortality, the number of persons in this age group reached a maximum in 1935. We may expect the number of young persons five to nineteen to decrease somewhat irregularly until 1980 when there will probably be about six million fewer of them than in 1930.

This prospect of a declining population of college age may properly be a matter of real concern to college and university business officers who have become accustomed to watch enrolments more carefully, now that income from investments has fallen off. It is clear that the declining birth rate will operate to reduce enrolments, but this factor may be more than offset by others operating in the opposite direction. On this point opinion seems to be rather sharply divided.

Writing in the September number of *Survey Graphic*, Provost Smith of New York University sounds the following note of warning. "Tremendous expansion in enrolments in elementary schools during the last fifty years was followed by even more spectacular increases in high school enrolments; these expansions were followed by stupendous increases in colleges and institutions of higher education. Now, after continuous expansion, losses in the elementary schools are reaching the high schools. Schools of higher education and colleges have a few years of grace before the secondary losses reach them."²

In a recent volume of the Report of the Regents' Inquiry, Julius B. Maller comments on the nation-wide trends in college enrolment as follows: "The colleges will probably reach their maximum enrolment by 1943 and then will face 'a diminished human reservoir' from which to draw, because of the cumulative effect of the declining birth rate. It should be noted in this connection that the decline in the size of families was particularly marked in the upper middle class and those of higher economic status, groups from which the colleges drew a considerable proportion of their enrolments."³

Ex-president Hughes strikes a decidedly more optimistic note when he says: "There seems to be good reason to expect that before 1980 our high schools will grow by one or one and a half million more pupils; that our junior colleges will enrol four times as many students as at present; and that our colleges and universities will double their enrolment."⁴

One may speak with some assurance with respect to what will happen at the elementary school level. We may expect about one and one-half million fewer children of elementary school age in 1940 than in 1930. This decline in the number of children will necessarily translate itself into a shrinkage of enrolment in the elementary school. In fact, it has already done so. During the six-year period, 1930 to 1936, enrolment in the elementary grades decreased in thirty-six states; the total decrease in enrolment amounted to 886,032 or 4.2 per cent. A continued falling-off of attendance at the elementary school for many years is a reasonable certainty.

Future trends with respect to high school enrolment are more un-

² Rufus D. Smith, "The Population Curve Hits the Schools," *Survey Graphic*, September, 1938, 445-450.

³ Julius B. Maller, *School and Community*. Report of the Regents' Inquiry. (New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1939), p. 146.

⁴ R. M. Hughes, "Higher Education in 1980," *Journal of Higher Education*, February, 1938, p. 77.

certain. It is clear, however, that the period of phenomenal expansion is drawing to a close. After about 1940 the number of young persons of high school age will begin to grow smaller. With the population of high school age actually decreasing in size and with 65 per cent of those in this age group attending school, it will be impossible as in the past to double high school enrolments each succeeding decade. The era of marked high school expansion does not appear, however, to be coming to a close in all parts of the country. There are states in which the percentage of children of high school age attending high school is relatively small. In these areas we may expect high school enrolments to continue to increase at a relatively high rate. And this is especially true of communities having a predominantly rural population. On the other hand, in some communities high school attendance is already showing a decline.

For the country as a whole, it seems reasonable to expect some increase in high school enrolment during the next four decades. Pascal K. Whelpton, of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems, estimates that the number of youth of high school age will rise to 9,700,000 in 1940 and will decrease irregularly until 1980 when the number will be 8,344,000.⁵ In 1936 there were 5,974,537 pupils enrolled in the public high schools of the nation. If this number of pupils was to attend high school in 1980, it would constitute 72 per cent of the total population of high school age. In view of the steady increase in the percentage of young people attending high school, this may not appear to be an unreasonable expectation. The percentage of the population of high school age enroled in public high schools rose from 28.4 in 1920 to 47.1 in 1930, and to 60.04 in 1934. There are a number of factors operative at present which lead one to expect a still further increase in the percentage of young people of high school age attending high school. The curriculum of the high school is being revised in an attempt to meet the needs of the masses of youth, and this should increase the holding power of the high school. Employment opportunity for young people under eighteen seems to be decreasing. There is a tendency on the part of industrial and commercial organizations to require more extended training as a condition of employment. The adoption of the small family pattern means fewer children in most homes, and where this is true, it is not un-

⁵R. M. Hughes, "Higher Education in 1980," *Journal of Higher Education*, February, 1938, p. 79.

likely that parents will be more eager to give their children a high school education. The prospect, then, seems to be that of a slower but continued increase in high school enrolment. An increase in the number of high school graduates should operate to expand college enrolments.

Within the course of a few years, probably by about 1944, the absolute number of young people of college age will begin to decrease. One thing seems clear, and it is important: if college enrolments are to increase or even to remain stable, colleges will have to attract a larger percentage of the young people of college age. Any one who attempts to estimate future trends in college attendance must begin with this basic fact and proceed to appraise the factors which may be expected to cause a larger or smaller percentage of young people of college age to attend college. But before considering these factors, I should like to make one further comment with respect to the effect of the declining birth rate.

Although the custom of family limitation is more or less nationwide, there are, nevertheless, striking differentials in the fertility of women in the different regions and in the farm and urban population. The fertility of native white women in 1930 was below what was required for family replacement by 11 per cent in New England, 15 per cent in the Middle Atlantic, 3 per cent in the East North Central, and 28 per cent in the Pacific states. From Maine to Oregon and north of the Mason and Dixon's line, the West North Central and the Mountain states constituted the only census divisions in which fertility among native whites was sufficient for family replacement. In contrast, reproduction rates were above what was required to maintain a stable population by about 25 per cent in the South Atlantic, 41 per cent in the East South Central, and 19 per cent in the West South Central states.⁶ Obviously the South is in large measure supplying the population reserves of the nation. In 1930 the southern states contained approximately 28 per cent of the total population, but in 1932 to 1934 they accounted for 47 per cent of the total excess of births over deaths. The population of Georgia is only slightly more than one-third as great as the population of the combined areas of California, Oregon, and Washington, but Georgia accounts for about 50 per cent more of the nation's excess of births over deaths than the com-

⁶P. K. Whelpton, "Geographic and Economic Differentials in Fertility," *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CLXXXVIII (November, 1936), p. 39.

bined area of the three Pacific states. Natural increase is taking place in North Carolina at a considerably higher rate than in all New England.

Differentials in reproduction are brought out in a striking way when the net reproduction rates of the various states are compared. In one group of states the reproduction index in 1930 was well below unity: California, .80; New York, .84; Illinois, .89; New Jersey, .91; and Massachusetts, .94. In another group of states at the other end of the scale reproduction rates are well above what is required to maintain a stable population: Idaho, 1.39; South Carolina, 1.46; Utah, 1.52; West Virginia, 1.54; and New Mexico, 1.65.⁷

Reproduction is also taking place at widely different rates in communities of different size. In 1930 in the rural-farm population fertility among whites was 62 per cent greater than necessary for family replacement. In contrast, in the total urban white population fertility was below what was required to maintain the population permanently by 13 per cent.

These regional and community differentials in reproduction will no doubt reflect themselves in regional differences in the trends in college enrolment. Obviously, the effect of the declining birth rate on college attendance in any given area must be considered in terms of the reproduction trends of that area.

We may now turn to a consideration of those factors which may operate to increase or decrease the percentage of young people of college age attending college. Among these factors one of the most important will be the attitude taken by society and by the colleges themselves toward the value and function of a college education. At any given time there is a definite national income to be spent. And as the percentage of the population in the upper age brackets steadily increases, a decision will have to be made with respect to that part of the national income which will be spent for the education of youth or for old-age security. No one can foretell social attitudes with respect to the relative merits of these two demands on the public exchequer, but it seems clear that in the future the colleges will be standing more or less constantly before the bar of public opinion.

Future enrolment will be influenced in no small measure by the policies which the colleges themselves adopt. In some quarters there is

⁷ Frederick Osborn, "Significance of Differential Reproduction for American Educational Policy," *Social Forces*, XIV (October, 1935), p. 23.

a feeling that the doors of the college should not open except to students of superior native ability. In the face of a definite decrease in the absolute number of young people of college age, it is difficult to see how such a policy, if adopted generally, could lead, in the long run, to anything else than a decline in college enrolments. Since the college, if enrolments are not to decrease, must attract a larger percentage of the young people of college age, it is reasonable to expect some falling-off in the average intelligence of college students. If the colleges should pursue a policy of admitting and retaining only those students of high ability, apparently the only way of preventing a decrease in attendance would be to provide liberal subsidies for poor but superior students. If, on the other hand, the colleges define their function as that of providing a general education for the youth of the nation, if they abandon their aristocratic traditions and work out programs that appeal to the average American youth, a marked expansion in the enrolment may be expected. Much will depend upon the success of the colleges in their attempt to work out a program of general education.

Attendance on colleges in the future will be significantly affected by the pattern of income distribution which the American people develop. At present a very large part of the total national income is received by a comparatively small number of families and by families with an extremely low birth rate. In 1935-36, 14 per cent of all families received an income of less than \$500; 42 per cent received less than \$1,000; 65 per cent less than \$1,500; and 87 per cent less than \$2,500. About 10 per cent of all families received incomes ranging from \$2,500 to \$5,000; 2 per cent received incomes from \$5,000 to \$10,000; and only 1 per cent had incomes of \$10,000 or more. The 42 per cent of the families with incomes of less than \$1,000 received less than 16 per cent of the total national income; the 3 per cent with incomes of \$5,000 and over accounted for 21 per cent of the total; and the 1 per cent having incomes of \$10,000 and over received a little over 13 per cent of the aggregate.⁸ The unequal distribution of income is particularly striking when the income of the farm population is compared with that of the non-farm population. In 1929 the farmers of the nation received only 9 per cent of the total national income, but they had the responsibility of caring for and educating 31

⁸ *Consumer Incomes in the United States*, pp. 2-4. National Resources Committee. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

per cent of the nation's children of school age.⁹ If the pattern of income distribution in the future should be such as to concentrate income still further in the hands of the few, a falling-off of college attendance might reasonably be expected, unless, of course, the general standard of living is materially raised. If, on the other hand, the national income should be more widely diffused, especially among the farm population, college enrolments would almost certainly show a sharp turn upward. A marked increase in the income of the 65 per cent of the families now receiving an income of less than \$1,500 might be expected to offset fully the effect of a declining birth rate.

Finally, much will depend upon the difficulty youth experience in prying open the doors of employment opportunity. Youth today are feeling the impact of depression, technological advance, and the changing age composition of the population. In seeking jobs, at every turn youth find themselves in competition with a growing company of more mature adults. On the stage of life youth are waiting for their turn, but unless the play changes so as to require more actors, the present generation of youth will be, to a considerable extent, a generation of extras. And as the doors of employment opportunity close, the doors of the colleges will tend to open. In fact, the colleges are faced with the possibility that they will be called upon to pay the rôle of custodial as well as educational institutions.

But again there is another side to the picture. Any marked revival in industrial development would probably play into the hands of young people. If industrial expansion comes it will probably be the result of the growth of new industries, and new industries tend to draw their employees from the younger age group.

In conclusion, I should like to state that in my opinion there is a tendency to over-emphasize the effect of the declining birth rate on college enrolments. Other factors may and probably will offset this one. When the more important factors in the situation are appraised and a balance sheet is struck, it appears that the number of American youth attending higher institutions of learning will continue to increase for at least another quarter of a century.

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⁹ The income estimates are those of the Brookings Institution. See Maurice Leven, Harold G. Moulton, and Clark Warburton, *America's Capacity to Consume*, pp. 172-73. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1934.

THE FUNCTION OF THE MODERN UNIVERSITY

LESTER K. ADE

THE TERM "university" has been used indiscriminately in the United States. It has been given to institutions with varying objectives and quality of production from the highest, by whatever measure one might use, to the extreme opposite position. Historically their eminence has placed them in a position to control the nature of contributing instructions, without themselves being seriously challenged except by the impact of critics and the weight of their criticism.

Recent critics including Lowell, Flexner, Angell, and Hutchins have called attention to the extreme diversity of courses which are offered in many of our present-day institutions known as universities. Extremists, taking one point of view, would make the university a service institution obligated to provide instruction of practically all kinds demanded by the citizens of the State. Others would restrict the function of a university to the education of a small group of super-men taught by the greatest of intellects. Let us consider the merits of these diverse points of view in arriving at our definition.

In this paper we shall consider the university as an institution of higher education above the secondary school. The first requisite of the university is that it have a good liberal arts or science college. The second requisite calls for one or more affiliated professional schools. The third requisite of the modern university is a recognized graduate school. Many institutions now called universities are not able to meet the foregoing requisites. On the other hand, many institutions of higher learning now using the name of college meet each of the three requisites of universities; e.g. Dartmouth College and Pennsylvania State College.

CONFLICT BETWEEN CULTURE AND PRAGMATISM

There is much discussion about the place of the university. This is true probably because of the fear that higher learning is becoming impaired by the application of learning to life. There are those who contend that a university should be exclusively intellectual, should encourage truth seeking, but should not attempt to apply the truth to real life. At the other extreme are those who demand that the uni-

versity shall be in close contact with contemporary life. Coffman has said that no intellectual service is too undignified for the university to attempt.

Thus, a limitation of the university and the college as well has been a tendency to deny worth to economic and other practical issues, and to assume the classic attitude that usefulness and dignity are in conflict. If the university is to survive, it must recognize the dignity of all necessary human concerns, and must endeavor to include and synthesize them all.

As regards culture, it is in the very character of the university to "learn how to study." The degree is but the proof of knowing how to study, how to seek culture alone and without help, of being set upon the path of scientific research. This is another proof that the essential task of the university is not limited to giving instruction.

THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

Other things being equal, a graduate or a professional school will attract, in the main, men of the general quality of its members. The graduate school is doing an excellent and much-needed work. It produces some extraordinary scholars, but they are not, on the whole, well adapted to attract and stimulate to the utmost young men of that kind. For this purpose a new method is needed which will provide a more stimulating atmosphere, broader contacts with eminent men outside the special field, and a more definite independent opportunity and productive purpose.

Graduate schools have had one effect that has not been sufficiently noticed. They have tended to impede the advance of the college. The influence of the German university has tended to minimize the importance of the college rather than to raise the college to a much higher level. A superimposition on the American college of the graduate school has brought about this inevitable outcome. Even though the historical reason for this may not have been clear, conflict has nevertheless been present on many university faculties.

Research and intensive development in subjects of the liberal arts curriculum, perhaps more academic than practical, has been checkmated by the graduate school in which preparation for a vocation is a more dominant objective than research for research's sake.

If the graduate school is to be a place for independent study and research by a few selected men, their position should resemble that

of the prize fellows at Oxford and Cambridge, while the colleges would be free to develop education of a higher order. But if the graduate school is to be like a German university, the sole place for advanced study, the college has no adequate function in higher education. It must be confined to a lower grade of work; and in many places the college already has been so confined.

Of course the college might be abolished altogether, and the secondary teaching relegated wholly to subordinate institutions such as the junior college, common in the West, and especially in California. This has been proposed but never carried out completely, for the universities which admit graduates of the junior colleges generally treat the work done there as a substitute for the first two years of their own undergraduate course, taking the point of view that continuity is an essential part of an educational plan. If the system were adopted fully, the university might become, like the German, an assemblage of professional schools but without the traditional background of culture that envelops the whole. Moreover, at present at least, the junior college cannot provide the highest prepared teachers of the German gymnasium, or the selected body of students preparing under rigorous discipline for the university. Such a system thoroughly tried would be interesting, but the results are problematical.

Abolishing the college in its present form has serious drawbacks. Not only in this country, but also in England and Germany, the custom has been to bring together in a community, with an atmosphere of culture, young men who will later follow many careers—future lawyers, physicians, statesmen, public servants, teachers, and others who will engage in business. The contacts made have been thought valuable, for it is not the direct education alone, but the common life also, that has been sought and that has caused much of the affection and loyalty of alumni. In England and Germany this common life for young men has been supplied in varying forms by the universities, in America by the college.

Socialization Processes

Without exaggerating the value of close contacts among young men of very different destinies, we may observe that if the colleges were abolished nothing for the purpose would take their place, for the students in our professional schools cannot be merged into a single community. Certainly the graduate schools cannot take their place.

Therefore, these schools are not, and cannot be made, social counterparts of their German prototypes. In short, the attempt to superimpose a German university upon an Oxford or Cambridge college has resulted in most cases in producing neither. Each has tended to weaken the other. Speaking of American universities in general, the college and the graduate school have been performing in succession separately some functions that had better be done at the same time.

Our institutions of higher and of professional learning should not attempt to copy these elsewhere. They must be adapted to our own conditions. This does not imply that they need to be inferior, or distorted by an effort at imitation.

The university is a center of culture, the aim of which is to give the necessary aid to complete human development. These higher institutions are interested in determining the way in which human energies are prepared to meet the challenges of life. The realization of one's own value is born in the consciousness gained through the impact of the experiences on these higher levels.

Specific Function of Graduate School

Nor does raising undergraduate instruction to a higher level imply discarding the graduate school; although part of its work will naturally pass to the college, as it has already done where graduate courses are open to upper classmen. The graduate school has essential functions with which we cannot dispense. In the first place, it supplements the education given in colleges less well-equipped. In the second place, it prepares men to be teachers in secondary schools as well as in institutions above the secondary grade. This is achieved not by imparting a technique of instruction alone, which in higher institutions may be of less importance compared with learning and personality, but by giving the specific knowledge required in the subject to be taught. In the third place it prepares leaders in other fields.

Finally, it should be emphasized that graduate schools are primarily schools and not research institutes. Consequently one of their functions is teaching as well as developing in others power for research or for original research by the faculty.

Importance of Flexibility

To raise the level of the college does not mean readjustment of the graduate schools to different conditions; for as the quality of

undergraduate education rises, it overlaps work formerly done later—a fact of which the graduate schools must take more account than they do now. They must be more elastic, pay more regard to individual attainment, relax their routine, and leave the progress of the proficient student more in his own hands. They must not think of themselves as essentially the university, and hence treat everyone entering as if he had received only secondary education.

For mature students they must not follow methods of measuring advance by scoring in courses, inappropriate in a real university, and wholly out of place for graduates of high grade colleges. The practice of graduate schools is no longer adapted to the improvement made by the best colleges, and should be revised in accordance therewith. To do otherwise will not attract a fair share of superior minds from the colleges into the graduate schools and subsequently into teaching and research.

Four Criteria of Function

As Grieder has observed, Flexner has listed four criteria by which one may judge whether or not an institution is performing the functions of a university. Indeed, regardless of the point of view held by the leading practitioners in this field, there is more agreement than disagreement with respect to the principles here enunciated. These four criteria are: (1) Conservation of knowledge and ideas, (2) Interpretation of knowledge and ideas, (3) Search for truth, and (4) Education of students who will practice and carry on.

There is perhaps no serious disagreement in assigning these four functions to a university—they might be accepted by the college as well—but there is certainly a difference of opinion concerning the interpretation that is made and the degree to which these criteria are put into effect.

CONSERVATION OF KNOWLEDGE—The conservation of knowledge and ideas, of the best elements of the heritage of the race, is not the function of the university alone, but of education in general. However, the university should maintain conditions under which men of quality can live and work. A university should expose its students to a sympathetic presentation of the convictions and ideals of the outstanding seers of our race. This is one of the prime duties of a university. Libraries also serve to perpetuate the knowledge and ideas of the race, filling an important place in the conservation of the racial heritage. However, distinguished men of thought fill just as

important a place, for they endow with life and vividness the wisdom of ages.

INTERPRETATION OF KNOWLEDGE—Interpretation of knowledge and ideas implies revealing the uses to which new knowledge as well as old may be put. Ideas are of little use without their being put into action. But here there is a serious divergence of personal opinion with respect to the limit of the university's activity in putting ideas into effect. There is one school of thought which holds that the modern university must neither fear the world nor make itself responsible for its conduct. Likewise, there are those who believe that a university is responsible for enlarging the boundaries of knowledge rather than for colonizing the territory it explores.

Then there is the other point of view represented by such expressions as the following: "It is essential that the university include as at least part of its activity the fields of production and the study and application of knowledge." Angell states that the university is an integral part of the society which it serves and could not, if it would, be oblivious to the necessities of the social order. With this point of view I agree. Society has a right to look to the university for intellectual leadership in all that affects a basic knowledge of man and the universe.

SEARCH FOR TRUTH—The search for truth, the research function, is well recognized as appertaining to the modern university. But this recognition is by no means universal. If I read Foerster's "The American State University" correctly, he would limit the activity of a university to "studies pursued in common," and suggests that there would be a fairly clear consensus in favor of (a) mathematics and natural science, (b) history, (c) literature, (d) philosophy and religion. Hutchins, who has been accused of advocating the greatest possible aloofness of higher learning from contemporary social life—holds that research in the sense of development, elaboration, and refinement of principles together with the collection and use of empirical materials to aid in these processes is one of the highest activities of a university and one in which all its professors should be engaged. Judd believes that the chief characteristic which distinguishes the university from all other institutions of higher education is the devotion to research and productive scholarship.

EDUCATION TO "CARRY ON"—In the fourth function which Flexner ascribes to the university there is the preparation of students who

will practice or "carry on." While most authorities agree that teaching is properly a function of institutions of advanced learning, there is no general agreement on the interpretation of the kind of teaching which is to be done, nor upon the kind of students who are to be taught.

The teaching function is conceived of by some as including the application of professional and technical schools with the university. The retiring president of Yale stated this position in the following words: "If your concern runs to the highest ideals of scholarship, and to the methods of dealing with the subjects of instruction, then it is not easy on logical grounds to exclude any body of serious material which is capable of mature, scientific and objective study."

This last, we believe, represents the modern point of view. The "conservatives" simply ridicule the inclusion of such schools and colleges as those of journalism, forestry, agriculture, dentistry, and the like, within the meaning of the term university. But these fields certainly come under the criterion set up by Angell, and this appeals to us as being eminently sensible and more in tune with the American spirit. That many administrators have agreed with this idea is shown by the fact that the typical state university embraces twenty or more schools and colleges often leading to separate degrees.

THE BROADENING FUNCTION OF THE UNIVERSITY

Agreeing with Holmes, the learned world will remain a separate world, in spite of the best efforts at fitting publicity, if the inner attitude of the university is an attitude of aloofness. This may seem to be the least of the dangers of American institutions of higher learning, with schools of business, journalism, education, agriculture, and hotel management crowding in upon the precincts formerly sacred to the arts and sciences. Our danger is not in aloofness, but in our willingness to go on developing pseudo-sciences, draping the common practicalities of life in academic finery, and lowering intellectual standards. The admonishing view of some learned leaders is that medicine and law may be worthy of university attention, but beyond these older professions we had better proceed with the utmost caution.

Whitehead finds philosophic ground for an opposite conclusion, and his opinion seems to rest on firm ground. There is danger, of course, in overloading any particular university with vocational departments; but the general argument for professional schools within the university is irresistible. It rests, first, on the hope of social prog-

ress and, second, on the need for human motivation for the advancement of learning. More to the point is the question of whether superior minds are at work on such tasks.

A Valid Responsibility of the University

If any great field of human activity, inherently worthy to be dealt with as a profession and developed under the professional standards, is not included within the scope of university, that field of activity is bound to remain on a low level. Moreover, it is exposed to becoming a prey to charlatans, raided by politicians, or overgrown by the rank vitalities of self-seeking individualists. If an occupation can profit by the development of a body of true theory—including both the technicalities we call science and the analysis of social values we call philosophy—then it may become a profession.

The universities, therefore, ought to devote themselves to an examination of its theory and the maintenance of standards for those who expect to practice the occupation, at least in its leading positions. Purely academic studies find material to feed on, problems to challenge new thought, and point the meaning for their whole existence in the emerging issues which are the direct concern of the professional departments of the University.

If the mere establishment of professional schools were sufficient, however, American universities could never be accused of holding themselves aloof from the activities of life. But too often their professional schools are unduly separated from one of the main sources of intellectual energy and critical guidance which the university can provide—the liberal faculty. To bring the professional schools into contact with that stream of intellectual life is not to sully it or to depart from ancient university tradition.

Those who believe that the universities of the Middle Ages were not fundamentally vocational in intent would seem to have misread the history of higher education. Those who dread the connection between professional schools and their problems and the faculty of liberal arts and its pure interest in truth have evidently misunderstood the meanings of truth itself. Actual co-operation between members of the faculty of liberal arts and members of various professional faculties is highly desirable in theory and has been demonstrated to be feasible and profitable in practice. Its dangers are apparent, but good administration should be able to avoid them.

Pure and Applied Learning

In the organization and work of universities themselves there is reason enough, perhaps, for urging an interplay between departments of pure learning and departments of applied learning; but the universities face today a social situation which makes such interplay a necessity on other grounds. The common life surges forward. Neither its practical interests nor its deeper spiritual needs can be neglected by any institution. Mass assertion—the downright insistence of large groups, or of majorities within whole population—that the goods of life, including its cultural goods, shall be more widely shared is a fact which universities cannot ignore.

It must be faced scientifically and philosophically in every field of university study in which problems of population, social policy and cultural aims come into question. The right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness is more than the right to vote. It includes the right to live and work in the light that is shed by all great human institutions, universities among them. Yet if that light is to be kept burning, it must be tended by the hands of a skillful and devoted body of highly selected workers; and this is especially true of universities. The cultural goods which universities help to produce are not in their essential mysterious character.

The cultural values of life may be destroyed altogether by the tides of life itself; a horde will not preserve the forms of beauty, of justice, of truth, or of love. To create these forms and make them the object of universal understanding and devotion is the task of all civilized living and all distinctively human activity. It is the common business of mankind, the one business that lifts men above the biological level into a moral life, the essential business of all great institutions and professions, a business in which universities play a part of increasing importance.

In these conceptions may be found the groundwork for a university policy in which the advancement of learning and the advancement of education are held fast in one intent and one program. And it means, concretely, that within the universities pure science, pure philosophy and pure humanities must not be rigidly divorced from their applications.

A man who has taken his degree is a man who has acquired a better knowledge of how to sail upon the ocean of culture which has flooded the world. He has but received an orientation. Therefore he is a stu-

dious man who possesses a compass which allows him to enter into communication with the stars that direct the way.

APPRAISING THE UNIVERSITY

The appraising of institutional eminence is closely related to the four criteria previously described. However, because of its major importance in the present treatment of the modern university, we are giving it separate consideration.

How then does one go about appraising the scholarly eminence of universities? In the first place, one may take the lists of the most distinguished scientists as published in *American Men of Science* and in somewhat similar records for the other branches of learning and tabulate the centers of concentration of these most eminent scholars. Second, since creative scholarship finds expression ultimately in publication, it is possible through the scientific journals to appraise the scholarly output of the several university faculties. The third and probably the soundest method is to rely on appraisals of the several departments of universities made by competent scholars in each field. The scholars themselves are best able to judge distinction in their own subject, and they are thoroughly acquainted with all the important workers in their own particular domains. Such appraisals have been made by juries of scholars in each of the various scientific and learned subjects.

An initial rating of the eminence of given departments in American universities, intended for the guidance of prospective graduate students, was made more than a decade ago by committees assembled by Hughes.

In matters other than eminence of faculty and the quality of their research it is believed that self-survey techniques by the institution or an association of institutions would prove most effective and the results most permanent. In many cases, however, expert assistance from outside sources is desirable.

Eells has found in his study of higher education over 500 surveys recorded. As a result of his analysis, Savage says in the introduction to the volume: "Surveys and studies already made include a body of knowledge far in advance of our present performance in every phase of higher education. In the main, this body of information is freely accessible, and the generalizations which have been drawn from it are of acknowledged worth. To apply pertinent generalizations to a par-

ticular university or college, or even to an educational area, requires a minimum of fresh data. What is needed is rather the power to reason from analogy, sound judgment, administrative intuition, persuasion, and tact in dealing with certain questions which all too frequently are personal."

These personal questions exist in every educational situation; it is important that they be recognized and dealt with fairly and sympathetically. The day of attempts to overwhelm opposition by a flood of statistical materials is already passing. However diverse and individual our colleges and universities are—and ought to be—each of them has access to a common body of administrative wisdom, which can be applied to new but similar conditions. Useful as educational surveys may be, their effect in many cases has been principally to corroborate conclusions arrived at long before through sound reasoning and understanding of human nature.

If the techniques of counseling and advising are grounded in facts, and if the judgment used to interpret them is sound, the result may be a triumph of educational statesmanship. Whatever the methods employed, whatever the end results, the final test is the effect they have upon those human beings who are the heart of our universities and colleges.

Jones in his description of the self-surveying service at the University of Pittsburgh explains that the term "self-survey" may be defined as a study or studies by colleges and universities themselves of themselves, either continuous or periodical in character. It may be directed by an outsider or an insider, but should be carried on by regular members of the faculty or administration who subsequently will have the responsibility of putting suggested changes into practice.

Universities can helpfully and constructively study university problems only by applying to themselves the principles of scientific analysis and observation that higher education applies to the rest of the universe. Some agency in the university should take the responsibility of finding the facts and presenting them properly to the parties concerned.

An institution which establishes a self-surveying service frankly recognizes its own imperfections and by its willingness to invest the necessary time and money tends to develop an attitude of self-criticism and experimentation which is the basis of sound professional growth.

If present signs are not misleading, another generation will show a decided change in our approach to the solution of problems of higher education.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have attempted in this paper to view the function of the modern university from various angles. In the course of our deliberations several points of emphasis have been developed.

a. *Three Requisites*

A consideration of the principles here advanced would lead us to the conclusion that the modern university comprises three essential functions; namely, the arts and science college program of higher education, a diversity of professional schools, and a recognized graduate school.

b. *Culture and Pragmatism*

These three primary functions of the modern university imply a dual objective—cultural development and pragmatic experience. The question does not evolve which one of these should characterize the function of the modern university, for both are essential to the responsibilities of our institutions of higher learning. Our universities, like other social institutions in America, exist to serve the best interests of society. Society demands both cultural and utilitarian experiences and abilities. There is, probably, then room for two types of institutions; that with a more popular appeal, and that for sober, advanced study and teaching. The true university will never expire, provided it keeps its aims and standards high.

c. *Essential Criteria*

In appraising the true university, we must consider such essential functions as the conservation of knowledge, the application of learned experience, the search after truth in science, history, letters and philosophy, and the perpetuation of higher learning through the preparation of qualified personnel to carry on the work. Each of these criteria is rife with critical problems. Guided by a true conception of the function of the modern university, however, these problems may be successfully attacked and solved by those charged with the responsibility for leading the way in these higher levels of education.

d. Relation With Other Higher Institutions

We may also conclude that the American college can be displaced by neither the junior college nor the university. The junior college is inadequate to fulfill such vital college functions as wholesome intellectual contacts of college folks, and the vital social processes that go forward among young men and women in the true college atmosphere. The graduate school, on the other hand, cannot displace the college because the former supplements and extends the realm of educational service of the latter. Moreover, the university is indispensable when it comes to preparing personnel to direct the activities in the relatively lower forms of higher education.

e. The Principle of Flexibility

While the university represents the highest form of pure research, the essence of learned scholarship, and the power of thinking in the rarer strata of human experience, it must recognize the imperative necessity of adapting its function to meet new and changing social needs. It must include within its far-reaching branches every great field of human interest and activity. It cannot maintain an attitude of aloofness and still fulfill its vital function in contemporary life. Social progress is demanding pioneer thinking and research in almost every sector of human experience. Every field is aspiring toward a place in the sun—every vocational segment of our population is extending its efforts upward. It becomes the social responsibility of the university not only to recognize these crying social needs, but to bend as far as possible to meet these needs in order to bring them to a higher level.

f. The Element of Change

The university must be thought of as a changing institution in a more or less changing world. To remain static seems to be opposed to the genius of the American people. A university of circumscribed interests, withdrawn from the contemporary world, is contrary to the interests of the modern world. Close contact must be maintained with all parts of the current scene.

Today's university would not be adequate necessarily for tomorrow's needs. The university of the Middle Ages served a very useful function. But a university limited to classical studies today would not be serving all the essential functions. Tomorrow's university may be

as different from today's as today's is from yesterday's. There can be no harm in an intelligent redefinition of terms as it becomes necessary. The constant which must be inescapable throughout is the necessity for safeguarding society by insisting that only superior minds shall bear the university's stamp of approval.

The obvious conclusion to this analysis is that institutions now using the title of "university" in America and failing to measure up to the widely accepted characteristics of excellence should discontinue its use. To leaders in higher institutions, and to accrediting institutions through which they exert their influence, is commended the serious task of self-appraisal with reporting of results as adequate as that which is now given to other scientific investigations in education at any other level. If this self-appraisal is seriously attempted and the definition of a university for which appraisal is made is accepted as herein implied, the ultimate contribution to society of these important institutions will be immeasurably increased.

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EDUCATION FOR LEADERSHIP

WILLIAM CRAIG SMYSER

ONE of the great automobile manufacturers of America has been sponsoring an annual series of races for boys with home-made coaster wagons. It is called the "Soap-Box Derby." The first prize, won in a final national race after a series of eliminations, entitles the fortunate winner to a four-year course, with all expenses paid, in any college he may choose.

This, I think, is symptomatic of the general American attitude toward what is known as "an Education," with a capital E. Nobody asks whether any of these youths is capable of accepting the education that is to be offered him. Nobody inquires whether a better use of the money, in some instances at least, might not be to set up the prize-winner in business, or to buy him a kit of tools, or to teach him a trade. No, a College Education is to be purchased for him, and he is expected to step into it as surely, and almost as painlessly, as he would be fitted to a new suit or get a haircut.

I have a suspicion that the day may dawn when some of these lads will wish they had never won the elimination heats in their soap-box races, for the elimination heats in college will be their downfall. If the matter ended there no harm would be done; perhaps, even, a brief acquaintance with the academic world, a brief experience in rubbing elbows with the more intellectually gifted, would give them values to carry through the rest of their lives. But the matter will not end there. Some of these boys will carry away from the campus the stigma of defeat, a sense of frustration, the bitter feeling that a gate has been closed in their faces, and that beyond it lies an elysium to which no other avenues lead. There are spirits to which such a rejection works incalculable harm, so that every academic failure is potentially a tragedy.

It is only a few months since President Conant attracted national attention, and created a flurry in the newspapers that lasted a week, by declaring publicly that there were too many already in college who should not be there. The wonder is, not that President Conant made such a statement, but that it excited so much astonishment and protest. How could there fail to be too many in college who should not

be there, when every American family that can save or borrow the money, marches its offspring indiscriminately across the college threshold?

The whole emphasis in American life is in this direction. To send one's children to college is the socially acceptable thing; to fail to do so is to confess lack of interest in their welfare. Insurance companies advertise policies that will provide for the education of the child, no matter what happens to the father. (And, incidentally, regardless of the intellectual calibre of the child.) High schools center their attention on their college preparatory courses, often to the neglect of those pupils who do not plan to go to college. The colleges themselves—or some of them—invite all comers, and a few even offer grandiloquent figures to show how much a college education is worth in dollars and cents, in terms of earning power after graduation. Small wonder then that the sons and daughters of nearly every middle-class family are caught up in the general enthusiasm, and take it for granted that of course they will go to college.

I would not be understood as decrying this tendency. The firm determination to give equal opportunity to every child speaks well for the mind and heart of democracy. It is a fine thing that more and more the riches of a college education are being placed within the reach of every boy and girl. But, as someone has observed, *equality* of opportunity does not mean *identity* of opportunity, because that would presuppose an equality of ability which does not in fact exist. What spells opportunity for one boy may spell only defeat and frustration for another. True equality of opportunity simply gives to every child the fullest chance to realize his potentialities and achieve the highest self-expression of which he is capable. He may turn out to be a statesman or a gardener, but society has made for him the best provision that can be made if it has enabled him to lead the life in which his native tastes and abilities are best expressed.

Many educational institutions are too incurious about the motives of the seekers at our gates. A student arrives and announces, for instance, that he will enter as a pre-medic. Usually we do not ask him why he wants to be a doctor, or what makes him think he will succeed in that exacting profession. We take his word for it and start him in the pre-medical course, and then one of several things happens to him. Perhaps his choice has been correct, and in that case he need never become a problem to his college, to his medical school, or to

society. Perhaps his choice is a wrong one, based on incomplete understanding of the aptitudes required in medicine, or of his own talents and limitations. In such a case he is fortunate if the error is discovered in time; if he falls into the hands of a wise counselor who will help him to evaluate his own gifts and shortcomings, to appraise the demands and the rewards of the vocations open to him, and to discover a calling in which he can work at his highest natural level and achieve the utmost in fruitful and satisfactory living. All too often the error is not discovered in time, and then he either struggles through with a barely passing record, (perhaps with his nose held firmly to the grindstone by the parental grasp on his neck), and emerges to a baffling career as a second-rate practitioner, or else he displays still lower aptitude and somewhere along the way he is dropped, many times without the benefit of any attempt to discover another field more suited to his capacities and interests. Instead of being oriented, and helped by his college experience to find his real place in society, he goes away from the campus bearing the inglorious stamp of failure. For him the college has been anything but the boon he expected it to be.

The trouble lies at least half the time in the fact that the problem of admissions is the academic stepchild. It is left to a committee for whose members it is only a sideline, or to be a harassed official who has to work under pressure from all directions, and who is nevertheless expected to exercise a strange clairvoyance in filling the college halls with precisely those students who belong there. On many campuses admissions are inextricably bound up with recruiting; indeed, admitting a student consists merely in persuading him to come, and perhaps finding him a job or a scholarship to help in the persuading. This is because admissions are often looked upon merely as a routine adjunct to the college's operation, and not as the major guidance function they should be.

It is an anomaly of the educational world that colleges everywhere should be actuated by such genuinely high motives of unselfish service, and yet should so often fail to inquire what is the best service they can render to each applicant as he comes. Perhaps it is because the college is so sincerely convinced of the abiding values it holds out to its students as to be blinded to the fact that not all of them are capable of laying hold on those values. Perhaps it is because the economic pressure is all in the direction of larger enrolments, and the

college dares not discourage too many applicants even if it would. More likely both of these factors, and perhaps some others, operate to prevent a due process of selection at the college gates. Whatever the reason may be, it seems beyond dispute that one of the most conspicuous weaknesses of higher education lies in the faulty selection of student bodies. The group of students in college is not the same as the group of young men and women who should be there. The two groups overlap, but they do not coincide. At the one end there is the uncounted throng of capable, ambitious, intelligent adolescents who have all the qualifications for college work but have been prevented from entering college. Of them we shall speak later. For the moment we are concerned with the group at the other end of the scale—the academically unfit who in spite of their unfitness have found their way into academic halls.

I have seen many of these as they arrived at the threshold of the university. Usually they come with their parents, who push them into a chair beside my desk and then look expectantly at me. It is much as if they drove the family car into the corner gasoline station and told the attendant to "fill 'er up." Sometimes I can almost hear what they are thinking. They are hoping I have not heard the old saying about the silk purse and the sow's ear. Alas, I have not only heard it, I have seen it proved.

Parental ambition, or social pressure, or the desire for four years in the halls of learning as portrayed by Hollywood—whatever the motive that sends them, we have constantly to be on our guard against an army of applicants to whom we have literally nothing to offer. Our vigilance against them is for our own good as well as for theirs. For their good, because, as I have tried to point out, the emotional and psychological consequences of academic failure may be very grave, to say nothing of the waste of time and money entailed in a fruitless educational venture. For our good, because once accepted into our student bodies, these students demand—and get—far more than their share of the time and energy of instructors, advisers, and administrators. They furnish most of the problem cases with which we have to deal, and dealing with them occupies our attention sometimes to the neglect of the gifted students whose peculiar problems deserve our utmost and our best. They are the insidious demoralizing influence that casts aspersions on high standards and true love of learning. From their ranks come the jitterbugs and those who crash into print

by swallowing live goldfish, or by whatever substitute for that exploit future idiocy may invent. We are better off without them. The manufacture of silk purses, even if it were feasible, is no part of the college's function.

There are, of course, some students to whom academic failure is no calamity. I knew one who, on being dropped from a midwestern college, jauntily sought out the president to assure him that he had been kicked out of better schools than that. But by and large, I am convinced, dismissal for poor scholarship is a penalty so pregnant with harm that we should do everything we reasonably can to avoid inflicting it. The very social attitude which makes college the acceptable thing by implication sets a stigma upon those who lack the mental equipment to succeed in college.

But the student who embarks upon an academic journey which ends in shipwreck is not the most forlorn figure in the picture. Tragic as he is, his sorrows as often as not are his own fault. He probably was warned that indolence or mental slowness or intellectual shiftlessness would preclude any satisfactory college experience for him. The real figure of tragedy is the capable, ambitious, intelligent youth who has all the qualities of mind and spirit to enable him to lay hold upon the riches of a college education and make them his own, but who is prevented by circumstances from entering college. Our boast of equal educational opportunity for all rings a trifle hollow in the face of the fact that thousands of these boys and girls finish high school every year, and watch with wistful eyes as their more fortunate classmates go on into college.

The remedy is not far to seek. It lies in a serious and systematic attempt to re-allocate our educational funds; to cease expending them upon students who do not deserve nor profit by them and to use them instead upon the gifted students who need them most. Much more rigid admission requirements on the one hand, coupled with much more liberal grants-in-aid on the other, would go far to change the whole tone of the American college.

Nearly every state makes special provisions for youth with special handicaps. Educational facilities are provided for the blind, the deaf, the crippled. In some states, for instance, a blind student in high school or college may secure state funds to hire readers and to provide textbooks and reference works in Braille. All this is as it should be. Why now should we not extend this aid to those whose disabilities

are financial rather than physical, in the form of scholarships and grants-in-aid open to all who could establish their right to them on the basis of rigid requirements of intelligence and character?

The objectives and operation of the National Youth Administration are a long step in the right direction. It is worthy of note that, amid all the storms of criticism and opposition that have raged around the various agencies of the New Deal, the N.Y.A. has escaped almost unscathed. The reason, I think, lies in the fact that the average American is instinctively sympathetic toward any movement which will result in increased opportunity for youth. For the most part we have accepted with approval this particular innovation, and it would be unfortunate if we were to allow the lessons we have learned from it to be lost.

Everyone knows, of course, that in practically no American educational institution does the student pay the cost of his education. Every dollar he spends is matched—sometimes many fold—by the college. It makes little difference whether the college is supported by the state or a denomination or a corporation or some other agency; it is always engaged in providing educational facilities at far less than cost. I know of universities which might profitably cut off five hundred students at the lower end of the intellectual scale and use the funds so saved to provide full expenses for a hundred gifted students who could not otherwise go to college. The net cost to the college would be substantially the same; the net returns to society would be incalculably greater.

This proposal will immediately be branded as undemocratic. It is, on the contrary, the essence of democracy. For the distinguishing trait of democracy is that it gives to every man and woman the chance to rise to leadership, and grants leadership, not to those who claim it by virtue of birth or fortune, but to those who are entitled to it by qualities of mind and heart.

Much of our educational system, particularly west of the Alleghenies, stems from the concepts of Thomas Jefferson. Listen to his ideas as to who shall be trained up for leadership:

I am now entirely absorbed in endeavors to effect . . . provision for the full education at the public expense of selected subjects from among the children of the poor, who shall have exhibited at the elementary schools the most prominent indications of aptness of judgment and correct disposition. . . . Of the boys sent in any one year [to the grammar schools] trial

is to be made in the grammar schools one or two years, and the best genius of the whole selected, and continued six years, and the residue dismissed. By this means twenty of the best geniuses will be raked from the rubbish annually.¹

It is a far cry, you see, from the Jeffersonian notion to the modern attempt to give a college education to everyone, provided he can somehow pay for it.

Most of our troubles arise from the fact that we have lost sight of the purpose for which we exist. Colleges were not founded, as so many assume, to give their students an advantage in the struggle for wealth and preferment. We are prone to forget this fact, and to judge a man's education by standards that have nothing to do with it. We have lost our appreciation of the value of education for its own sake, and have come to look upon it as a means to an end. We think of it as a weapon, a tool, a stepping-stone to success. If we take the position that the college exists to give everybody a head-start, we shall one day be brought to the realization that all these head-starts cancel each other out, and the value of the college will begin to appear doubtful.

As a matter of fact, colleges and universities were not founded to confer benefits in terms of inflated personal prestige and increased earning-power. Look into the charter of almost any institution you may choose, and you will find there, expressed or implied, the conviction that the existence of democracy is utterly dependent upon the development of trained and enlightened leaders in unbroken succession. Every institution of higher education in this country that is worth the ground it stands on has been born of the sure knowledge that genuine leadership is almost the only commodity of which there can never be a surplus.

The shift in emphasis we are called upon to make, therefore, is only slight, yet how vast its results! We must train for leadership instead of for success. If our goal is to enable as many young men and women as possible to lift themselves a notch or two in social standing or in wealth, then we can hardly justify a refusal to open our doors to all comers, and to allow each one to seize what he can grasp of the benefits we offer. If, on the other hand, colleges exist for the purpose of supplying society with the leaders it so urgently needs,

¹ From a letter to George Ticknor, November 25, 1817. Ford, *The Writings of Thomas Jefferson*, New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1899, vol. X, p. 95.

then there can be no place in them for the shallow, the stupid, or the idle. Of such stuff leadership is not made.

Along with the shift in emphasis between objectives, we may expect a shift in emphasis upon curricular content. The controversy that rages over liberal versus vocational training is not likely soon to be settled, because you will take one side or the other, and believe in it firmly, according to whether you conceive of education as a preparation for the art of living or for the business of earning a livelihood. But before the glowing concept of education as training for leadership, the voices of controversy fall silent. Because, as between the larger aspects of intellectual growth and teaching the tricks of a trade, between bringing out the innate capacity of a youth and supplying him with tools to be used and formulae to be applied, between training for power and training for utility, there can be no debate.

I shall be accused, no doubt, of setting the welfare of the state in this matter above the welfare of the individual. My answer will be that, as society supports our institutions of learning, society has a right to the highest benefits to be derived from them. And these do not lie in training a man to outwit his competitors or to outdo them in skill or perspicacity.

Nietzsche somewhere says that education must struggle for its values if it is to survive in a democracy. Higher education in America has by no means yet won its right to survive, despite its almost miraculous growth in the last few decades. The greatest disservice we can do it is to make it serve ends which are trivial or impermanent. "Struggling for its values" means an unfaltering emphasis upon the purpose for which education is maintained: the training up of leaders whose thinking is courageous and untrammelled, whose sense of values is sure, whose mastery of themselves is complete. Without such leaders the future of democracy, of civilization itself, would be dark.

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GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE¹

BYRON S. HOLLINSHEAD

SOME years ago I was teaching a course in English literature at Bucknell University. To one of the brighter girl students in my class I assigned a paper on "Newman and the Oxford Movement." Meantime, the professor of philosophy became ill and asked me to substitute for him in his course on the history of philosophy.

In the philosophy course we arrived at the time for a discussion of Newman about two weeks later than in the English course. When the discussion of Newman arose in the philosophy class, I turned to the girl who had finished the assignment on him in my English literature class and suggested that she tell the other students something of Newman and his ideas.

"But I don't know anything about him."

"But you must know something," I replied, "You just turned in a paper in our English literature class on 'Newman and the Oxford Movement.' "

"Oh," she said, "I didn't know it was the same man. I thought he was only in English."

The illustration indicates, I think, one of the reasons for the present discussion of general education. While most students probably do not departmentalize their knowledge as sharply as the girl I have just described, the dangers of over-segmentation in college courses have increased rapidly with the increasing division which has come with greater knowledge in a variety of fields.

In attempting to explain "Why general education," therefore, one of the most important reasons for this attempt to generalize, to relate, and to integrate subject matter fields at the junior college level has been the continuous division of subject matter resulting in an over-specialization both of instructor and student.

To simplify and enrich our curricula by broad rather than narrow concepts of human knowledge, various methods have been proposed: These range from the ultra-conservative program of St. John's College to the ultra-modern program of Stephens College with all kinds

¹ Delivered before the November 1939 meeting of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

of variations between—each with its distinctive philosophy.

In a paper of this scope, I cannot take the time for any detailed discussion of the various programs of general education at the junior college level. However, it may be possible to deal briefly with the two extremes—St. John's and Stephens.

These are difficulties with both positions. Let us examine the philosophy back of the program proposed by President Hutchins of the University of Chicago and now in effect at St. John's College in Maryland. The St. John's program is based largely on the reading of one hundred of the so-called classic books. Writing on "What is a general education" in *Harper's Magazine*,² President Hutchins justified his position by the following syllogism: "Education implies teaching. Teaching implies knowledge. Knowledge is truth. The truth is everywhere the same. Hence education should be everywhere the same."

There is nothing the matter with the logic of these statements provided we are willing to accept the premise that "The truth is everywhere the same." Now I am willing to assume that in an eternal celestial mind there is such a thing as absolute truth which is everywhere the same. The kind of ordinary truth, however, which you and I possess, depends to a great degree on time and place. What was truth twenty years ago in many academic fields may not be truth today, and what may be true for all ordinary purposes in Atlantic City may not be true in Berlin, Germany. It would be just as reasonable to state the syllogism: That, since the truth is everywhere different, education should be in no two places the same.

Besides being unable to accept the underlying philosophy of Dr. Hutchins' program, I should like to attack the theory on pragmatic grounds. It seems to me that any careful study of the classic writers must lead one to the inescapable conclusion that even our greatest minds were frequently wrong precisely because they suffered from the limitations of a particular time and a particular place. If the studies in the field of economics of the past few years by the Brookings Institution mean anything, they mean that the so-called laws and axioms of the classical economists cannot be applied in our present complicated industrial society. In the sociological field we have had almost a complete change in the past ten years in the public mind

² Hutchins, R. M., "What Is a General Education," *Harper's Magazine*, November 1936, pp. 173.

regarding the obligations of the United States government to its citizens. The same objection can be raised in nearly every field—for example, I should hate to depend for my trip home from Atlantic City on a car built according to the physics of Aristotle.

We have learned more in the last forty years about most fields of human knowledge than we had learned in the previous two thousand. To neglect the learning of the twentieth century is as serious an omission as to neglect previous learning. The excitement of those who have just discovered the classics is analogous to a "nouveau riche" family suddenly discovering that they have ancestors. That "Socrates has crossed the Delaware"³ is an interesting phenomenon, but I cannot see how it will solve all or many of the problems of 1939.

On the other hand, we have the method of the progressives which would discard the past and base course prescriptions on what seem to be the needs of the present. This point of view is probably best illustrated by the study made by Dr. W. W. Charters for Stephens College. More than three hundred women college graduates were asked to keep diaries over a period of weeks "in which they recorded not only their activities, but also their problems and their very thoughts."⁴ From these diaries, Charters found seven areas of activities and problems common to all women and from these areas Stephens has built its curriculum. The areas are communications, appreciation of the beautiful, social adjustment, physical health, mental health, consumers' problems, and philosophy of living. To these the college has added an eighth area called "knowledge of science in terms of life needs."

The method is quite interesting and certainly far removed from the scholasticism of Dr. Hutchins. There are some general objections I should like to raise. In the first place, it seems too much like a training only for the "here and now," and the "here and now" is rapidly becoming the "elsewhere and tomorrow." For another thing, the method would seem to indicate that there is very little content in even the partial truth for which the race has struggled for so many centuries. Further, there is a danger that a training designed for the present may become traditionalized into the future with bad results.

³ Milton S. Mayer, "Socrates Crosses the Delaware," *Harper's Magazine*, pp. 64-75, June 1939.

⁴ B. Lamar Johnson, "General Education in the American College," Thirty-Eighth Yearbook, Part II, Page 128, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.

All of us are aware of the fact that in colleges we tend to develop vested interests in maintaining the status quo.

Between the two extremes just described, and I am aware that the discussion was hasty and that much might be said to confute my remarks, there are the programs of the General College of the University of Minnesota, the Junior College of the University of Chicago, the General College of the University of Florida, and the experimentalizations of Sarah Lawrence, Bennington, and Bard, to mention but a few.

All these programs have as their objectives the integration of knowledge. In general, also, the programs provide students with material allowing them to develop a more satisfying philosophy of personal existence. The programs are further designed to provide for the development of a high order of economic, political, and social citizenship.

Any program of general education must consider two main factors —curriculum and faculty. My own preference for a curriculum would be a combination of the University of Chicago program with some of the General College of the University of Minnesota techniques. Incidentally, the University of Chicago program does not feature the study of the museum pieces of literature, but gives in each main course a synthesis of present knowledge based on both past and recent information. This would mean a core curriculum made up of Biological Sciences, the Humanities, the physical Sciences and the Social Sciences, with the tool subjects of English and Mathematics, and such other tool and vocational subjects as a particular student's aptitude would allow.

However, any curriculum in general education needs to be devised and modified for the particular use of the college in which it is to be given. Unless the program is indigenous in the sense that it is adapted to the abilities of the students taking it, the faculty giving it, and the institutional resources for it, it will be a flat failure.

Always, of course, there has been some general education in every college, because there have always been a few instructors who rose above their specialties and gave their students significant insights. I recall four from my own undergraduate work at Brown University who seemed to have had an unusual gift for general education. Perhaps it may be worthwhile to analyze the methods they used. One of the most popular courses at Brown University when I was there was a course in Greek and Latin civilization given by an elderly pro-

fessor who had a very unusual way of combining the past with the present, so that the Greeks and Romans were part and parcel of our own lives. Another unusual teacher, in that day, gave a course in contemporary drama in which he had all of his students utilizing the museums, the art galleries, and the theaters of Providence to gain the objectives he had in mind. A sociology professor I had took us to virtually every state institution in Rhode Island so that what he talked about in his classes had reality and concreteness for us. Another individual gave an exceedingly successful course in general education in biology. As nearly as I can analyze it now, his success was partly owing to his experience as a successful practitioner, and his authority derived from the fact that he could use illustrations both from his work as city bacteriologist and from his teaching experience.

Perhaps these four individuals illustrate techniques in general education we must learn. Those techniques would be uniting the past with the present, utilizing community resources, using visual aids to give concreteness to class material, and being a successful practitioner in the field to a degree recognized both inside and outside of academic circles. This means that faculty members must revise present techniques and possess more of general education themselves.

Aside from the curriculum and faculty, there are other concerns general education must have. General education must be a community affair. By community I do not mean parochial. Community means in common and is not restricted to a small geographical district. Nearly every college in America draws a majority of its students from an easily defined area which it serves. The program of general education must be integrated with this community in such a way that artificial barriers are removed and students feel they are not withdrawn from the world of fact.

At Scranton-Keystone Junior College we have Community Advisory Committees, made up of members of various professions, in order to keep us "en rapport" with our community. Probably there is no one best method for accomplishing this community integration, but I am sure it must be accomplished if general education is to be a success.

To a degree, at least, our troubles are the same in education as in business. We have the productive capacity and the consumer need, but we have fallen down on distribution—largely, I think, because we have not been able to make our programs intelligible to our com-

munities. We need more popularizers in the best sense of that abused term. We need more history instructors for undergraduates with the broad training to write a book like *America in Mid-Passage* and fewer who know all the details of the development of the railroads in Arkansas between 1840 and 1845.

In the same way our programs must be more closely geared to the home. Unless we regard the influence of parents as pernicious, it seems to me we must recognize that one of our best tools for accomplishing our educational objectives with students is to enlist the support of home influences. No instructor can take the place of a good father, and no college can replace a home. To be sure, there are some homes which do not generate a helpful influence, but most homes do, and education must aid and add to the work of parents.

Likewise, it seems to me, our general education program must include the church. With the displacement of functions of many of our community institutions, some functions of both church and home have too often been assumed to be in the hands of the schools and colleges. Such a reassignment of functions is not feasible, and any program of general education ought to have as one of its objectives the strengthening of the home and church on a mutual aid and assistance program. About one hundred years ago the church as an institution gave a strong impetus to the development of higher education in America. It might be highly appropriate for the schools and colleges to return that impetus now by coming to the aid of the church.

In addition to proper relations with the community, home, and church, we ought to plan our general education to accomplish a wholesome and normal relation between the sexes. From my quite possibly benighted point of view, this can be accomplished most easily by co-education. Where coeducation is not possible, special provision must be made to develop a wholesome emotional attitude toward sex and its problems.

To carry out a successful program of general education, junior colleges need the help and sympathetic understanding of four-year colleges and universities. The need for general education is staggering. Most of you are probably familiar with the Pennsylvania Study⁵ which shows that, "While 105 out of each 1,000 high school gradu-

⁵ Howard M. Bell, "Youth Tell Their Story," page 96, American Council on Education, 1938.

ates went on to college and successfully completed the first two years, there were 174 out of each 1,000 who did not go to college, usually because they were financially unable to do so. The 174 who did not go to college were found to have mental abilities that promised as high a degree of scholastic success as the 105 who did."

In other words, the selective process at present is largely economic, and there are more students graduating from high school who have the ability to do college work but are not in college, than there are high school graduates who have the ability to do college work and are in college.

Lastly, the four-year colleges and universities should avoid trying to force junior colleges to give courses paralleling minutely the courses they themselves give. Junior colleges can never work out their programs successfully if they try to offer work paralleling exactly the work of a dozen or more universities in their lower divisions. I am speaking now of the liberal arts course, not of engineering or pre-professional curricula.

May I give an illustration to make my point clear. One of our honor students some years ago wanted to go to a large mid-western university to take a major in statistics. He was very acceptable to the institution except that he had had economics in his freshman year with us and the registrar insisted that unless economics were taken in the sophomore year, no credit could be given. Few registrars take that attitude today, but the case is illustrative of an over-regard for minutia and a disregard for the important fact which was that the boy was an honor student.

My suggestion is that when a four-year college or university is considering a junior college student on a transfer basis, it should first consider the junior college in which he has had his training. Then the university should consider the student. If he is a good student and the junior college will recommend him, he will almost certainly do well in the university even though his courses may not have paralleled the work of its lower division exactly. Many studies indicate the truth of this statement. In this way, the four-year colleges will help the junior colleges to organize their work to the best advantage of the student, themselves, and the university.

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FACULTY-REGISTRAR RELATIONS¹

JULIA LONG

THE REGISTRAR's office is the nerve center of the campus, and can easily become a center of irritation. In no other office are the opportunities for irritation and friction so varied and numerous. No other office calls for so many reports from faculty members; no other office addresses so many communications to faculty members; no other office, perhaps, is so often visited by faculty members. All of this adds up to a major problem in human relationships, both personal and professional.

The registrar's office is often referred to as "the hottest spot on the campus." Many of the grievances of students and parents, as well as of faculty members, are brought to this office. The grievances of students and parents often are related to faculty members and are accompanied by strong emotional upset. Other administrative officers look to this office for much of the data on which to base their plans. Surely in meeting the problems that arise out of all of these contacts and conflicting interests the registrar needs to be adept in handling people. He needs to combine in himself the finesse of a Dale Carnegie, the idealism and adherence to principle of a Woodrow Wilson and the persuasiveness of a Franklin D. Roosevelt. Thus equipped he may hope to keep temperatures below the fever pitch and blood pressures near normal.

It is important that the registrar and his staff remember at all times that the office is a service office; that it has no reason for existing other than to render service to students, parents, teachers, and other administrative officers; that records, research and reports are not ends in themselves, but are the media of service. Once this ideal of service is firmly established in the minds of the registrar and his assistants and is recognized and accepted by the teachers in the institution, the foundation has been laid for mutual understanding and respect. The kind of superstructure that is built on this foundation depends on the personal and professional equipment of the registrar and on the adequacy and proficiency of his staff.

The disposition to complain about having to make reports and fill

¹ Read before the December 1939 meeting of the South Carolina Association of College Registrars.

out questionnaires seems to be human nature—or at least teacher nature, if such a distinction can be made. The registrar can to some extent weaken this disposition by judicious timing of calls for reports and the filling out of forms. Certain reports have to be made, of course, according to the college calendar; but others can be called for at a time when teachers are under least pressure. Catalogue material, personality ratings for the placement bureau, and questionnaires that have to do with surveys can be called for at times when teachers are likely to have the maximum of time available for such duties. If a registrar is considerate of teachers in these matters, he can apply pressure when pressure needs to be applied with a minimum of unfavorable reaction.

The registrar in his efforts to prevent irritation and to secure co-operation from the faculty should not forget that he and his staff should be possessed of an unfailing good humor and a sense of fairness. This will be appreciated by students and faculty alike. A visit to the registrar's office should never be permitted to become an unpleasant experience. Every visitor should leave with a feeling that he has been cordially received and fairly and courteously dealt with. If in addition he can feel that he has been helped, he will probably want to return again and, in case of a faculty member, will more cheerfully co-operate on all future occasions.

Since the registrar is in a position to grant favors, it is easy to let personal relationships become too intimate. While cordial relationships are desirable, these relationships should be kept on a professional plane. Proper professional relationships can be built only on understanding and mutual respect.

The registrar is not always right and the faculty always wrong. He expects the faculty members to understand the registrar's position; the registrar should then be certain that he understands the faculty member's point of view. This can best be done through a spirit of give-and-take. It is worthwhile even in a busy office to take time to discuss at length points at issue, or points that may come to issue, with faculty members.

The registrar's office is one of the most strategic offices in the college for educational leadership. While this leadership is exerted largely through the registrar's relationship with other administrative offices and is thus indirect, it is also exercised directly through his contacts with faculty members.

Four areas in which the registrar's office can make its leadership

felt are: first, evaluation of student achievement; second, student personnel work; third, curriculum planning; and fourth, improving instruction. The extent to which the influence of the registrar's office will be felt in these areas depends upon the competency of the registrar and his staff members. This in turn depends upon the thoroughness of their training and the fullness of their background of experience. To realize all the potentialities of the office for leadership calls for a high degree of educational statesmanship on the part of the registrar and for technical proficiency and tact on the part of his staff members.

The registrar is the "custodian of the richest storehouse of source material connected with the institution."² It is his duty to organize and classify this data so as to make it available for faculty members. He should at all times keep the faculty informed of what is available. With his co-operation they should be able to obtain significant information about the individuals with whom they have to deal. This information should serve as one of the bases for the evaluation of student achievement.

A part of this information will be in the form of test scores, which gives the registrar the opportunity to suggest greater use of standardized tests or the use of new types of examinations. At Winthrop we have been able to encourage the use of more objective examinations and to have some of these put in form for machine scoring. Since most teachers are deficient in technical training in the field of tests and measurements, the registrar will need to give very definite guidance in the development of these new instruments of evaluation. Especially will teachers need assistance in the preparation and the validation of test items and in determining the reliability of the completed tests.

Even a casual reading of the JOURNAL of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars will reveal numerous articles on personnel work, which indicates that over the United States the office of the registrar is playing a prominent part in developing personnel programs, and especially in those phases of the personnel programs that have to do with curriculum and vocational guidance. Most of the records on which guidance is based are in the registrar's office and it is, therefore, the logical place for personnel work to center. Here

² Gillis, Ezra L., *The Evolution and Development of the Registrar's Office*. Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, 14:116, January, 1939.

again the effectiveness will depend on the leadership found in the registrar's office.

While curriculum planning is not primarily the responsibility of the registrar, still he cannot escape the obligation of participating in this phase of college administration. The registrar, through the evaluation of high school transcripts, acquires a knowledge of high school programs and an understanding of student preparation and, therefore, knows the foundation on which the college program must be built. The questions that arise during registration and for which he must find answers give further insights into curriculum needs. As a personnel officer, dealing especially with curriculum guidance, he increases his understanding of curriculum needs and deficiencies.

The job of improving instruction is specifically the job of the academic dean, but it often happens that the registrar is in possession of information which, if tactfully passed on to the teacher or teachers concerned, can be made to contribute materially to the improvement of instruction. The effectiveness of faculty members is probably sensed more quickly and accurately in the registrar's office than in any other office of the college. The registrar often gathers information personally, through clerks and students, or through records which can be of great value to faculty members. "Having secured this information, there is the problem of conveying it to his colleagues in such a way that they will welcome and profit by it. The method employed must vary according to the temperament of the faculty member concerned. Discovering the best method to use with each faculty member is not an easy task."³ He must first command the respect and confidence of the faculty in general, after which dealing with the individual members will follow with the same respect and understanding. In addition to working with individuals, the registrar's office is a vital factor in inter-department co-operation. With the proper guidance and direction, a clash of interests among departments of instruction or personal differences among members of the faculty may be avoided.

In no case should the registrar expect from the faculty more understanding than he gives to the faculty. He must guide and direct without officiousness, and must conduct his business in a firm but kindly manner, taking time whenever possible to establish cordial relationships with the members of the faculty. At all times he should strive to render a service which because of its quality commands respect.

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³ Hale, Wyatt W., *Shall We Supervise College Teaching?* Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, 15:79-80, October, 1939.

FIGURES DON'T LIE

WILLIAM S. HOFFMAN

WHEN the tenth annual report of the Committee on Special Projects, on enrolments and degrees conferred by our member institutions arrived, I made a considerable study of the position of The Pennsylvania State College among the colleges represented, and published it in the *Faculty Bulletin* issued by The Pennsylvania State College, a paper appearing weekly. Some of the figures were challenged by heads of departments, or by schools who felt that their position should have been higher and that the figures were too low, insofar as their school or department was concerned.

Shortly after the appearance of the report, circular number 183 of the Office of Education, a preliminary report on land grant colleges and universities for the year ending June 30, 1939, reached my hands. A comparison was made of the enrolments in these institutions with the figures for the same institutions in the report of the Registrars' Association. All but three of these land grant institutions are listed in the Registrars' report, those missing being the University of Alaska, the University of Nevada, and Virginia Polytechnic Institute. In only one instance did the figures for total undergraduate enrolment, bachelor degrees conferred, and enrolment in agriculture, engineering, home economics, and in the Graduate School agree in both publications. The institution to hold this enviable position is the New Mexico Agricultural and Mechanical College. A number of institutions had numerous identical reports for individual items, but no others agreed in every detail.

For purpose of comparison, the figures for the ten largest institutions as represented in "total undergraduate enrolment, excluding duplicates" as listed in circular 183, are given on the next page.

In this table the number of cases where the figures are not identical is greatly in excess of the small number where the figures are identical. These identities are indicated by connecting the figures with leaders. It would seem that the heading "Bachelor Degrees Conferred for the Year Ended June, 1939" should give the same figures as a heading "Bachelor Degrees Conferred 1938-1939." In but three instances, however, are the figures identical. In the case of the Uni-

THE TEN LARGEST LAND GRANT INSTITUTIONS

Data Sources
 (A—AACR report, October, 1939
 (E—Circular 183, Land Grant Colleges and Universities, Office of Education.

RANK	Total Undergraduates Excluding Duplicates (E)	Bachelor Degrees Conferred Year ended June '39		Agr. (E) (A)		Eng. (E) (A)		Enrollment		Grad. (E) (A)
		1938-1939 (A)	(E)	(E)	(A)	(E)	(A)	HE	(E)	(A)
1	The University of California.....	23,991	4,378	4,159	1,270	1,512	1,574	1,741	0	318
2	The University of Minnesota.....	14,921	2,569	2,355	1,119	1,858	2,438	2,438	739 (incl. in Ag.)	3,244
3	The University of Illinois.....	13,060	2,726	2,541	1,035	1,053	1,852	2,090	555	599
4	Ohio State University.....	12,560	2,236	1,973	1,102	1,662	1,892	1,892	560 (incl. in Ag.)	1,402
5	The University of Wisconsin.....	10,625	1,853	1,801	808	819	1,538	1,437	583	576
6	Louisiana State University.....	7,575	1,027	837	510	648	601	601	138	0
7	The University of Nebraska.....	6,643	1,130	983	513	513	851	851	449	449
8	Purdue University.....	6,442	956	956	741	743	3,587	3,594	800	806
9	The Pennsylvania State College.....	6,430	1,310	1,310	746	924	1,321	1,279	482	482
10	The Iowa State College.....	5,978	855	855	1,579	1,083	1,907	1,788	1,597	1,620
Identical Reports.....				3 of 10	1 of 10	4 of 10	4 of 10	2 of 10	2 of 10	3 of 10

versity of Minnesota the difference is in excess of four hundred. It would seem, also, that enrolments in such a curriculum as home economics should give identical figures, but this occurs only twice. Actually, for Louisiana State University one hundred thirty-eight are reported to Washington, while the Registrars' report indicates that none were so enroled. Three interesting cases occur in connection with this curriculum. In the reports for the University of Minnesota and for the Ohio State University the Washington report contains a figure showing the size of this group, but the Registrars' report has a note "included in Agriculture." The difference in the two figures for students enroled in agriculture for these two institutions does give the same result as was reported to Washington. In addition, the Louisiana State University, without such a footnote, actually should have had one. One of the greatest variations recorded in the above table occurs in the figures for the University of California, insofar as graduate enrolment is concerned, where the difference amounts to considerably over one thousand.

This is not a new situation, as may be seen from the following table, in which the figures for my own institution and for one other, for the years indicated, are given. Footnotes occurring in the reports are included in the tabulation. The figures are from reports similar to those quoted in table 1, but for the years indicated.

Year 1934-35					
		Enrolment			
	Bachelor Degrees Conferred	Agr.	Eng.	Home Econ.	Grad. School
Penn. State College	E— 959 R— 959	488 420	1091 1003	271 271	322 322
Univ. of Minnesota	E—1866 R—1558	290 1043	1617 1102	430 in Agr. (incl.)	1615 1615 (incl.)
			For. & H. Econ.	Arch.	
Year 1936-37					
Penn. State College	E— 990 R— 990	745 745	1242 1113	355 355	410 410
			(incl. Ch. E., does not incl. Ag. Eng.)		
Univ. of Minnesota	E—2197 R—1807	518 1616	2019 0	590 in Agr.	1999 1999
			(incl. For. and H. Ec.)		

Just what some research student will say as he attempts to study enrolments twenty years from now, when he is confronted with so widely varying tabulations, is hard to predict.

Doubtless every one of these discrepancies can be explained, and since my own institution is represented I hasten to explain the variation insofar as those reflected in the reports for agriculture and for engineering last year are concerned. The catalog enrolment in agriculture at the Pennsylvania State College is 1178 candidates for the bachelor's degree, and 199 in the two-year courses in agriculture—a total of 1377. In the report to the Registrars' Association, foresters, 453 in number, who are enroled in the School of Agriculture at the Pennsylvania State College, were subtracted, giving a total of 924, the reported figure to the Registrars' Association. In reporting to Washington, however, the catalog total of 1377 had subtracted from it not only the students in forestry, 453, but those in agricultural engineering, 42, and those in agricultural education, 136, which leaves a balance of 746 enroled in strictly agricultural courses.

Under the heading of Engineering the catalog enrolment was 1077. Architecture, 41, however, is listed separately and should be subtracted, and chemical engineering, 243, in the School of Chemistry and Physics, was added, giving a total of 1279. This was the figure reported to the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. In reporting to Washington the catalog figure of 1077 had subtracted from it the 41 in architecture and added to it those in chemical engineering, 243, and those in agricultural engineering, 42, giving a total of 1321.

It is to be regretted that these two compilations do not contain identical data. Perhaps it might be possible for the land grant college survey, as made by the Office of Education, and the report on enrolment, as made by the Committee on Special Projects, to be made on the same questionnaires in order that the registrar might more easily report identical figures.

—Volume 15, Number 2

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS IN THE ARTS COLLEGE AND THE TEACHERS COLLEGE

G. W. ROSENLOF

IT IS THE burden of this article to review briefly the findings of an investigation made by Mr. Searle E. Hawley under the supervision and sponsorship of the writer.¹

What to teach, how to teach, and by whom to be taught constitute three problems that have long been at the center of many researches in the field of education. In this particular instance the third one of these is the problem of study. The problem is a timely one, not alone from the standpoint of the teacher and his training but from that of the training institution as well. The quality of the secondary school program—not to say of the program of all educational institutions—is dependent mainly upon the teaching staff. The training of that staff is a problem of three aspects, we are told—"its adequacy, its comprehensiveness, and its recency."² The first two of these aspects have been a matter of very great consideration and study by both the arts colleges and the professional schools of education or teachers colleges. Whether either of these has a monopoly over the other as to its own ability to do the job the more effectively or efficiently is in a real sense the basic consideration. On the one side is the traditional program of the liberal arts college that eschews professional education. In effect it has held that knowing subject matter—what to teach, is all-important. On the other side, the professional school has too much eschewed subject matter and emphasized methods and techniques of classroom management and instruction. Is there not a middle ground? Does not the avoidance of one or the other result in an "inadequacy"? Does not a consideration of both insure a "comprehensiveness"?

The author reviews at some length the evidences already at hand. Among other evidences he cites an investigation made by Margaret

¹ Hawley, Searle E., *A Comparative Study of Teacher Preparation of Two Hundred Selected Arts and Sciences and Teachers College Students from 1933 to 1937*, An Unpublished Master's Thesis, University of Nebraska, 1939.

² Altstetter, M. L., "A Report of the Co-operative Study of Secondary School Standards," *The School Review*, Volume 45, Number 7, page 529, September, 1937.

Kiely³ in which this student, among other things, seeks an answer to whether or not students in liberal arts colleges are more "cultured" than those in the teachers colleges and whether the students in the teachers colleges know more about "technical" education than do the students in liberal arts colleges.

In her conclusion, Dr. Kiely states that the conclusions defined fail to confirm the first assumption that liberal arts college students are more "cultured" or the second assumption that teachers college students are the possessors of more "technical" education.

Specifically, Miss Kiely points out that,

Summarizing the comparisons between the two groups of students in range and variety of knowledge expressed in four tests, two of general information and two of professional information, it may be said that, despite whatever differences in mental ability there may be, professional students and arts students show no marked differences in general information covering a variety of interests. In technical information related specifically to education, the professional students are distinctly stronger than arts students.⁴

In an attempt to reveal further what if any differences exist, the writer examined the complete transcripts of scholastic work completed by 100 students in the Arts College and of 100 students in the Teachers College, both colleges being a part of the University of Nebraska. In each instance the students were candidates for the Bachelor's degree and qualified for legal certification as teachers in secondary schools in Nebraska. Not alone their college training (total picture) was included but also their high school records. The number of subject-matter fields contacted by the people in each group was compiled. The professional training with respect to the sequence of courses pursued and the amount of student teaching for each group was ascertained and compared. The spread of courses within subject-matter fields and between fields was tabulated and compared. This tabulation and comparison was not confined to majors and minors but to the entire range of subjects or fields of subject-matter contacted. A serious effort was made to analyze the professional preparation of

³ Kiely, Margaret, "Comparison of Students of Teachers Colleges and Students of Liberal Arts Colleges," *Columbia University Contributions to Education*, No. 440, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1931, p. 121.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 122.

each group to discover the degree, if any, of superiority as to either the amount or spread of courses selected.

It should be pointed out that only those students whose entire program of study was completed at the University of Nebraska are included. Furthermore, all of these students graduated from the University during the years 1933 to 1937 and represent a random selection almost equally divided as between men and women.

FINDINGS

Without reviewing in any detail the major findings, it will be of interest to note in a summary manner what seem to be the more significant of the discoveries.

1. There is very little, if any, positive evidence of any "relationships of interest" in high school subjects to that of interest in major subjects in college. Furthermore, in the selection of major subjects, "the Arts and Science College students tend to select subjects which are less commonly taught than do the students of the Teachers College. The same thing holds true in the selection of minor subjects, though the variation is less pronounced.
2. The difference in the number of subject-matter fields contacted by the students in the two colleges is negligible.
3. Less care was apparently exercised by Arts College students in selecting "majors" in subjects commonly taught in secondary schools. Nine such subjects were found to have been selected by Arts College students—the average number of semester hours earned in these subjects exceeded the college major requirement by approximately eight hours. A somewhat similar but less pronounced situation exists with respect to "minors".
4. Other than "majors" and "minors" few peculiarities or differences exist. "Both groups show a tendency to wander outside high school interests," though the range of selection is somewhat more pronounced among the Arts College students.
5. The range of courses within the "majors" is somewhat more extensive in the case of the Arts College students. Not only do these students exceed the number of hours required for a major in any field but they also select many courses for study quite unrelated to the field of high school teaching. Among those subjects of which this is particularly true may be included "botany, chemistry, economics, the languages, social sciences and mathematics."

6. Teachers College students are apparently much better provided for as to subject matter preparation in the fields of the commercial arts, practical arts, physical education and "combined sciences."

7. Preparation in "professional courses" is more definitely cared for in the case of Teachers College students. Frequency of selection of courses is more pronounced and covers a wider range of course offerings. Subjects more frequently selected by Teachers College students include Tests and Measurements, Statistics, and Vocational Guidance.

8. More pronounced than anything else is the fact that students in the Teachers College are all fortunate in having had the opportunity to actually teach. "Student Teaching" is a required course for these students. It is the exception rather than the rule for Arts College students to be provided with "student teaching."

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the data revealed, it is recommended that since "teaching combinations" are so varied and lack in any degree of uniformity that students should be more carefully advised and guided in the selection of majors and minors and of related fields that there may be insured a breadth of preparation which of itself will guarantee a greater possibility of adequate preparation and ease of satisfactory placement. Any considerable preparation in subject-matter not commonly included in the curricula of the secondary schools should be discouraged. Narrow specialization will too often prove detrimental. There is furthermore recommended a more uniform pattern of professional training embracing the practical as well as the theoretical aspects of teaching and having a more direct bearing upon the type of teaching for which the student is preparing.

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THE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

DONALD J. SHANK

ONE CAN read scarcely any educational magazine, book, or report in these days that does not have spread over its pages the words "guidance," "adjustment," "counseling," or some related pet cliché dealing with individualized education. This is entirely a healthy sign. The interest in students as individuals of school and college administrators, teachers, registrars, deans of men, deans of women, medical officers, and other species of academic genus promises much for the development of a vital educational program.

The American Council on Education stands high in the group which today is giving much attention to this area. The Council, by its very nature as a comprehensive, voluntary, co-operative agency of educational associations, organizations and institutions, should express on a national scale the important developments with which education is concerned. Certainly, no one of the 478 members of the Council can be excluded from the list of educational bodies which are seriously working on the problems of the adjustment of students. Because the concept of effective adjustment of individual students underlies in some degree all educational research, every committee and project of the American Council is concerned to some extent with personnel work. This paper which will attempt to summarize these activities can only touch on certain high spots.

BACKGROUND OF COUNCIL'S INTEREST

Historically, the Council has a major stake in the development of student personnel work. In 1924 the Council published the first of its psychological examinations, the result of a co-operative attack by a number of research workers who had become interested in mental testing during the World War. This examination and the succeeding forms which L. L. Thurstone has prepared have served well as diagnostic tools for the discovery of the capabilities of individual students. In 1925 the National Research Council formally requested the American Council on Education to consider means of affording for college students more accurate and helpful information concerning their ca-

pacities for various vocations. The Central Committee on Personnel Methods which the Council set up, consisting of Herbert E. Hawkes of Columbia College, *chairman*, Henry W. Holmes of Harvard University, C. R. Mann, then director of the Council, Walter Dill Scott of Northwestern University, and Harry R. Wellman of Dartmouth College, contributed as much to the study of individual students as any group in American education. This sweeping generalization could be documented with dozens of specific developments and movements which grew out of the committee's activities.

It is significant, however, to point out early in this paper that the Central Committee on Personnel Methods went far beyond its original commitment to consider the vocational abilities and aptitudes of students. The ramifications of the committee's program extended to almost every phase of education.

The first major activity of the committee was a survey of fourteen selected institutions to determine what actually was being done to help students as individuals. L. B. Hopkins carried on the study which was reported in October 1926 in *The Educational Record* under the title "Personnel Procedure in Education." Since 1926 there have been countless surveys and investigations of personnel activities at all levels of education, but it is doubtful that any of them has had the effect of Hopkins' report. Even today this relatively simple, but surprisingly comprehensive, study could well serve as a guide for many educational institutions. It continues to be a basic document for all who are interested in student personnel services.

After Hopkins had completed his work, the Central Committee on Personnel Methods isolated a number of specific problems to which serious study was given. The first of these was the preparation and publication of a set of cumulative record cards designed to describe a student from many points of view, as contrasted with the traditional academic record which had so long served as a balance sheet of success or failure. This cumulative card, widely distributed, and in many cases adapted to local needs, served to focus the attention of teachers and administrators on aspects of an individual student which had not previously been considered of major importance. Specifically, information was sought regarding personality, family background, curricular and extra-curricular activities, health, educational and vocational objectives, and numerous other factors. The concept of a cumulative record which followed each student along the steps of the

educational ladder and which was basic to an intelligent program of counseling and adjustment continues to exert a constructive influence on academic practice.

As a second problem, growing in part out of the development of record cards, the Central Committee was impressed with the necessity of measuring the academic growth of students in terms that would be comparable from year to year and from subject to subject. There is no need here to rehash the old controversy regarding variations in teachers' marks. The desirability of objective tests which measure intellectual growth is now denied by no research worker or administrator, although there is difference of opinion concerning the use of such examinations in relation to the total evaluation process. The Central Committee on Personnel Methods faced this problem in a very practical way. It organized and secured financing for an independent test making agency to prepare annual forms of objective examinations for most subjects at the high school-college level. The Cooperative Test Service, which has developed a comprehensive program under the directorship of Ben D. Wood, now furnishes a service of educational value to countless institutions.

The third pioneering activity was the preparation of a personality rating scale to obtain information regarding significant aspects of the character of students. Although this troublesome problem still remains unsolved, a substantial contribution was made by the Central Committee. Traditionally, a person rated another person on the basis of certain undefined, nebulous characteristics, and on a completely subjective scale of values. The personality rating scale which the committee developed utilized a short list of traits defined in practical terms and provided a scale which compared the individual with others in his group. A highly important contribution was the addition of space for the recording of instances in a student's behavior upon which a judgment was based.

The preparation of vocational monographs was a fourth approach by the committee. Although several monographs were issued, this phase of the committee's activity was not carried forward. A number of other organizations, however, have made important use of the techniques which the committee developed.

This much attention has been given to a review of the Council's earlier activities in the field of personnel because its present program grows logically out of the research activities which have been men-

tioned. It should also be emphasized that numerous other organizations and institutions have during the past decade and a half had records very similar to that of the Central Committee. Indeed, so much attention has been paid to the preparation of personnel tools that the quality of the instruments available for the study of individuals now is far in advance of their actual use. If schools and colleges would take advantage of the excellent materials already on hand, much more rapid progress could be made. The fault, however, lies not alone with the educational institutions. Too frequently research workers have failed to provide guidance and assistance in the use and interpretation of their tools.

THE PERSONNEL POINT OF VIEW

Several years ago the Council decided to try to remedy this situation. It called a conference of a number of individuals who had been active in research or administration in the field of personnel. The conference was asked to investigate certain fundamental problems related to the clarification of personnel work, the intelligent use of available tools, and the development of additional techniques and processes. The report, "The Student Personnel Point of View," published in June 1937, is a striking statement of philosophy, functions, and needed developments. This statement, which recommended the creation by the Council of a Committee on Student Personnel Work in Colleges and Universities to take over certain functions of the former Central Committee on Personnel Methods, has been widely acclaimed and accepted as a guidepost for personnel workers. The membership of the new committee includes:

Raymond A. Kent, University of Louisville, *chairman*
A. J. Brumbaugh, University of Chicago
W. H. Cowley, Hamilton College
Helen G. Fisk, Western Personnel Service
Herbert E. Hawkes, Columbia University
Edwin A. Lee, Teachers College, Columbia University
Esther Lloyd-Jones, Teachers College, Columbia University
Mildred H. McAfee, Wellesley College
J. E. Walters, Purdue University
E. G. Williamson, University of Minnesota

The Committee on Student Personnel Work co-operates closely with the Council's Committee on Measurement and Guidance, Dean

Hawkes, *chairman*, which supervises the administration of service projects in the field of evaluation and carries on investigations of new areas of measurement.

The first major recommendation in "The Student Personnel Point of View" was that the Council undertake a national survey of personnel work similar to the one which Hopkins carried on in 1925-26. Such a study would furnish an overview and qualitative analysis of activities now being carried on in typical colleges and universities and should serve as an impetus to improvement to all institutions. It would require the services of an experienced individual qualified to observe and evaluate the total personnel program in these institutions. To date, the Council has not secured funds to carry forward this highly desirable undertaking.

A second recommendation suggested the preparation of a series of brochures which would present detailed information about specific personnel functions. The new committee has already completed two brochures which have been published by the Council. "Educational Counseling of College Students," prepared by a subcommittee consisting of Helen D. Bragdon, A. J. Brumbaugh, *chairman*, Basil H. Pillard and E. G. Williamson, is an excellent summary of problems and procedures in a field basic to the whole personnel movement. "Occupational Orientation of College Students," prepared by W. H. Cowley, *chairman*, Robert Hoppock and E. G. Williamson, is a challenging analysis of factors in an effective diagnostic and adjustment program. A third brochure, "Social Competence of College Students," will soon be ready for publication, and a fourth, "Financial Aid to College Students," will be completed in 1940.

These brochures are handbooks for the guidance of personnel workers, administrators, and teachers. They are not research reports, but are attempts to translate into educational practice the best that is known regarding each function. The committee will continue the development of these brochures in other fields as rapidly as possible.

As this brief summary of the activities of the Committee on Student Personnel Work indicates, the primary concern of this portion of the Council's program is one of interpretation and education. However, the committee is closely allied with the Committee on Measurement and Guidance which continues research on development of techniques and tools for the study of individual students. For example, the Measurement and Guidance Committee is now planning a revision

of the several Cumulative Record Cards mentioned earlier. In addition the committee will soon issue a comprehensive handbook on problems of reading at the high school-college level. Certainly, this report which summarizes principles and techniques of reading in general education will contribute much to effective educational counseling.

AMERICAN YOUTH COMMISSION

Other important Council studies which are certain to influence student personnel work are the research projects of the American Youth Commission. Only a few can be mentioned here. "Youth Tell Their Story," the striking report by Howard M. Bell based on interviews with more than thirteen thousand young people, is an eloquent, almost frightening, plea for effective student guidance. The educational, social, occupational and personal maladjustments which are mirrored in the responses of these youth should be an effective antidote to any possible smugness on the part of educational personnel workers. The results of the co-operative experiment with the United States Employment Service which the Commission will soon issue also presents sound research data for all who are working on occupational counseling and adjustment. The Commission's study of personality adjustment of minority groups with special reference to Negroes will be a pioneering report in a new but important direction.

CO-OPERATIVE STUDIES

The Cooperative Study of General Education at the Junior College Level, a Council project under the direction of Ralph W. Tyler, also deals directly with the improvement of student personnel work. Twenty-two institutions of higher education mostly in the midwest area have joined together for a co-operative attack on their problems. Personnel work immediately became the core of one major division of the study with John L. Bergstresser in charge. Visits to institutions, consultation with local staff members, seminars and workshops will be devoted to the study and improvement of personnel practices.

A similar approach characterizes the Council's program in the Commission on Teacher Education, under the direction of Karl W. Bigelow. One of the first undertakings of this Commission was the establishment of a Division of Child Development and Teacher Personnel, under the leadership of Daniel A. Prescott. L. L. Jarvie, Rochester Athenaeum and Mechanics Institute, will serve as Asso-

ciate in Personnel to work with the thirty-four institutions of higher education and school systems which are co-operating in the total program of teacher education.

These studies have a broad significance for all educational research. As Dr. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, has said, ". . . the problems are being studied co-operatively right down where they are met in everyday school and college life and not merely by a commission sitting apart which compiles information, adjusts prejudices, and writes a report. Through the device now being used in these Council projects, there is, first, a sense of reality in the problems investigated; secondly, a sense of responsibility in the schools and colleges themselves for solving them; and, finally, the development of successful techniques and personnel to carry on the work."

The American Council on Education believes that it is carrying on a vital program which will contribute much to the development of effective personnel programs in schools and colleges. It recognizes that many other organizations and institutions are much concerned with the development of this area. The Council sees, as its major contribution, the co-ordination of all these efforts to the end that teachers, administrators and students may be helped in the solution of problems which face them.

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EDITORIAL COMMENT

The College Transient

THE TRANSFER of students from one institution to another is not a new aspect of higher education. Recent years, however, have brought increased difficulties to admissions officers in their administration of such transfers. The student population of the United States grows constantly more mobile with our rapidly developing facilities for transportation. Hitchhiking even contributes to the ease with which students can overcome the distances lying between institutions. Extensive publicity campaigns have made young people aware of colleges that previously have been unknown to them, while fee differentials and the growing reputations of many schools in their fields of specialization have encouraged students to move from one campus to another.

Much of this migration is educationally desirable, and if all of the students involved did satisfactory work at the institution of their first choice, the problem would not be unduly burdensome though considerable labor is involved even in the transfer, recording, and filing of records of advanced-standing students. The really difficult problem arises from the fact that so many of the transfer applications received today are from students who may properly be described as college transients. For a variety of reasons, most frequently because of low ability, they have done unsatisfactory work at the other institution or institutions attended and they are now shopping around, sometimes with the vague idea that a change of collegiate environment will in some miraculous way bring about an improvement in their work and sometimes with the clear purpose of finding an institution with relatively low fees in order that more time may be devoted to study and less to earning a living. In other cases they are now turning to the institution that they preferred to attend in the first place, transferring from the one they were encouraged or forced to attend by their parents. Finally there are those who passed over their own state institutions in their first selection, attracted perhaps by a college with a reputation of longer standing, by some "name school," or by an institution's athletic reputation. Unsuccessful in the school that made such a strong first appeal, they suddenly become acutely aware of the excellent reputation of their state institutions and turn to them with

a hope for the satisfaction and success that they have thus far failed to achieve.

What is the obligation of an institution to the transfer student who has been unsuccessful in the institution of his first choice? We have had presented an excellent analysis of the avowed practices of member colleges of the Association in the JOURNAL for April, 1939. In general these practices fall into three classifications. About 29 per cent of 437 institutions state that students are not admitted on transfer unless they have made normal progress toward graduation. Fifty per cent admit students with a standing below the graduation requirement only on probation, while about 16 per cent apparently accept transfer students without qualifications irrespective of their previous standing.

Any individual who has had experience with admissions will agree that the easy way to handle the problem would be to accept all transfer applications without regard for the quality of the record, as about fifteen per cent of our colleges do. However, almost four-fifths of the institutions co-operating in the Association study endeavor apparently to eliminate from among the transfer applications those who have been unsuccessful elsewhere and show little promise of improving the quality of their work. It is in his endeavor to maintain a standard of this kind that the admissions officer encounters what is probably his most difficult problem. There seems to be little or no understanding on the part of most parents and students of the significance of previous work in college in predicting subsequent success; they are almost naïve in their expectations that a change of school will somehow produce an academic transformation, and if it is their state university or another state college with which they are dealing, they do not hesitate to assert their rights as citizens and taxpayers even though it is pointed out to them that their first choice of another school should give their own state institution some option in dealing with the application. In other words, pressure of a variety of kinds is brought on admissions officers to admit students who have been unsuccessful elsewhere and who can present no valid evidence whatever that they can improve the quality of their work in a new environment. That a disproportionate amount of energy and time is given to such applications almost any admissions officer will testify, and almost all will agree that the problem is becoming more difficult.

What, if anything, can be done to make this task less onerous?

May the receiving institution justifiably insist on more information from the student and the sending college than is ordinarily presented? Perhaps the Association might interest itself in a study of this question with a view to recommending a procedure that would place larger responsibility on the student and the institution of his first choice, and in some measure lend support to the admitting officer in his efforts to maintain reasonable standards within his institution.

The Annual Report on Enrolments and Degrees

AT THE last annual meeting of the Association in New York City, a question as to the value of the annual report on enrolments and degrees was raised, both in a committee meeting and in one of the open forums. In each instance there was sufficient interest expressed in this study to insure its continuance for at least another year. However, it was evident that a great many in attendance at the meeting had some doubt as to whether member colleges derived sufficient benefit from the report to warrant the expense and labor involved in its preparation. Perhaps the report has not been used very effectively in a great many institutions. Actually and potentially, however, it is far too valuable to abandon. It is significant in that the figures in each number are as nearly up-to-date as data of this kind can be. The report presents the facts about a large number of institutions in terms that are now practically standardized, and the data are supplied by officials who understand the language of enrolments. As a consequence the figures are, with few exceptions, genuinely comparable. Finally, and most important, is the fact that the report has been carried forward in essentially the same form for ten years, providing thereby a source of data unequaled in value for an analysis of trends in institutional growth.

While the reports, as they have been received annually, have been made to contribute effectively to the administration of many institutions, their full value has not as yet been realized. With the publication of the tenth number it would seem that the time has arrived for a study of the data contained in the comparable editions. The Association could now with profit arrange for an analysis of the statistics in these reports with a view to revealing trends in the development of higher education in terms of enrolments and degrees granted. With the data presented for the nation as a whole, by regions, by states, by types of institutions, and, perhaps, according to

other classifications, there would be provided an excellent picture of the last decade in higher education in America, a background against which the development of a particular institution might be studied with profit. The proposal for a summary study of this kind is made with a full recognition of the excellent contributions by President Raymond Walters in his annual survey of college enrolments and by Trevor Arnett in his recent study of enrolment trends published by the General Education Board. While there would be some duplication of effort in the proposed Association study, it would unquestionably possess many values not characteristic of the other two.

—LEO M. CHAMBERLAIN

REPORTED TO US

ON NOVEMBER 9 and 10, President William S. Hoffman represented the Association at the "Conference on Inter-American Relations in the Field of Education," called in Washington by Secretary of State Cordell Hull. President Hoffman was also invited to attend a series of discussions on the "Protection of American Solidarity," under the auspices of the Inter-American Center of George Washington University.

J. F. Yothers, Registrar of Coe College, represented the Association at the inauguration of John B. Magee as President of Cornell College, on October 27.

Hazel Geiner Petcoff, Registrar of the University of Toledo, represented the Association at the inaugural ceremonies for President Frank J. Prout of Bowling Green State University, on October 21.

O. V. (Dad) Henderson of the University of New Hampshire became Registrar Emeritus on July 1. He entered the service of the University in 1914 as Purchasing Agent and remained in this position until 1920, when he became Executive Secretary and Registrar. The following year he dropped the position of the Executive Secretary but continued as Registrar until his retirement. Aside from his contributions to the University of New Hampshire, he was an outstanding citizen of his community and state.

Esther Hoff, formerly Registrar at Whittier College, has been appointed Secretary to the Registrar of Berea College with particular responsibility for admissions.

Paul Davis, formerly Registrar at New Mexico Normal University, has been appointed as Associate Registrar with particular responsibility for educational research.

Dr. James Hiram Bedford, of the University of Southern California, and President of the Society of Occupational Research, has accepted the appointment as Dean of the Vocational College of John Brown University.

Douglas V. McClane, since 1931 Registrar of Whitman College, has been appointed Director of Admissions in addition to his position as Registrar. Herbert T. Condon, Jr., a graduate of the University of Washington, has been appointed to serve as assistant in admissions.

Dr. Roger L. Slocum has been appointed Registrar of the State Teachers College of Platteville, Wisconsin, to succeed W. H. Williams, now retired.

Elida Yakeley is now Associate in Historical Research at Michigan State College.

Fanona Knox, Registrar at Hollins College since 1926, is studying at Radcliffe College this year. Mrs. Helen W. Hobart is Acting Registrar for the year 1939-40.

Dr. Paul S. Burgess has returned to the University of Arizona as Dean of the College of Agriculture after serving as Dean of Rhode Island State College during 1938-39. Dr. Ralph S. Hawkins, head of the department of Agronomy, has been appointed Vice-Dean of the College of Agriculture, a position recently created by the Board of Regents.

George S. Beery has been appointed Registrar at Whitewater State Teachers College.

Dr. L. B. Hale, Director of Personnel and Placement Service and Counselor of Freshmen at Carleton College, has been appointed Dean and Registrar of Evansville College, Evansville, Indiana.

G. W. Swanbeck has succeeded C. A. Serenius as Registrar of Augustava College, Rock Island, Illinois. Mr. Serenius has become Assistant to the President.

C. L. Jorden has succeeded W. W. Haggard as Superintendent of the Joliet High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois.

Edward Morgan is Dean of the new Junior College at the Maine Township High School at Des Plaines, Illinois.

Helen Kibbe, formerly of the staff of the Registrar at the University of California, has been appointed Registrar of Modesto Junior College.

Ernest Clark has been appointed Director of Admissions of the University of Kansas City.

Thomas Finkbeiner, for thirty-five years Registrar of North Central College, was made Acting Dean and Registrar and at the last commencement was honored by having the honorary degree of LL.D. conferred upon him by the University.

Floyd C. Wilcox, formerly of Linfield College, is the newly-appointed Director of Admissions and Personnel at the University of Redlands.

Lucy B. Gardner, formerly Secretary of the College of Education, University of Kentucky, is now Registrar of the State Teachers College at Salisbury, Maryland.

Probably a few college catalogs anticipated the change in date for the celebration of Thanksgiving. One such is the catalog of Bucknell University, in which Thanksgiving for 1939 was scheduled for November 23. This is one instance in which the registrar turned out to be a reliable soothsayer.

QUOTED from an article by President McAfee in *The Wellesley Magazine* of June 1939: "Instead of having a Dean of the College, we shall have a Dean of Instruction and a Dean of Students. The first will devote herself to those aspects of educational policy which are the especial responsibility of the faculty, acting, for example, as chairman of the Committee on Curriculum and Instruction. The Dean of Students will

be the administrative interpreter of educational policy to the students, acting as a class dean and chairman of the class deans, and as chairman of the Committee on Student Records and of the Committee on Scholarships."

Ella Keats Whiting, Associate Professor of English Literature, has been appointed Dean of Instruction; and Lucy Wilson, Professor of Physics and Acting Dean of Wellesley College 1938-39, has been appointed Dean of Students.

Plans for the consolidation of Lewis Institute and Armour Institute of Technology were announced at a meeting of school officials held on October 26. The new institution will be called the Illinois Institute of Technology. The proposed consolidation calls for a new campus with a school enrolment of 7,000 day and night students. For the time being, students will continue their activities at both institutions. Co-ordination of the educational facilities of the two schools will be completed by September of next year.

The College of Liberal Arts and Sciences of the University of Illinois is working on a new general curriculum to be put in operation in September 1940.

Harry E. Elder, Registrar of Indiana State Teachers College, is conducting a *Know Your College* series of nine interviews over the local radio station. The following are the topics for interview: Registration and Placement; Where Indiana State Teachers College Students Come from; Where Indiana State Teachers College Graduates Go; Supply of and Demand for Teachers; The Class of 1943; American Education Week; What Goes on in the Registrar's Office; What Indiana State Teachers College Is Thankful for; The Classes of 1939 and 1940.

The curriculum of Upper Iowa University has been placed on the divisional basis. The following constitute the new divisions: (a) Division of Languages and Literature; (b) Division of Science and Mathematics; (c) Division of Social Sciences; (d) Division of Philosophy; (e) Division of Fine Arts.

Northern Illinois State Teachers College has reorganized its curricula in 1938-39 on the basis of broad general orientation in the fields of the Fine and Applied Arts, Mathematics, Social Sciences, and Sciences, with minimum changes for the year 1939-40.

The departments of study of Yeshiva College have been rearranged into three fields: (1) Language, Literature, and the Fine Arts; (2) The Natural Sciences; (3) The Social Sciences. Health and Physical Education have not been included in any of these divisions, but continue as a separate department. Revision of concentration requirements to make these conform more closely to the new organization is now under consideration.

This year, for the first time, a curriculum leading to the Bachelor of Science degree has been offered at the Principia. It is planned primarily

for those students wishing to specialize in the field of Mathematics and the Natural Sciences. The College has also inaugurated a new plan for students who fall below the median score in the major portion of the battery of tests given to freshmen. These students are placed in a sub-freshman course, where fundamentals of English, study skills, and some elementary social science are given to help build up their background and better prepare them for regular college work. Only provisional credit is given for this work, and it cannot be counted toward a degree.

\$250,000 was recently contributed for a new science building at the University of Kansas City, erection of which will begin at once.

On October 3, Saint Mary's College, Notre Dame, launched a drive for \$100,000 for a new library and auditorium, a Centennial Building to commemorate the founding of the Congregation of the Sisters of the Holy Cross in 1841. During the first week of the drive, \$1,850 was donated to the fund.

According to a statement adopted by the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, one-third of the unemployed workers in the nation are young people fifteen to twenty-four years of age. The rate of unemployment is higher among youths between twenty and twenty-four than in any older age group, and highest of all for young people between fifteen and twenty who are out of school and seeking work. At the time of the 1937 census of unemployment, when the general level of unemployment was about the same as at present, nearly 11,000,000 persons, constituting 20 per cent of all those available for employment, were either totally unemployed or employed in emergency work.

President Zook reported at the October meeting of the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education receipt of the following grants of money since the last meeting of the committee: From the General Education Board, \$2,565 for the use of the Commission on Teacher Education for a study of the Education of Secondary School Teachers by a committee of the faculty at Harvard University; \$2,000 for the use of the Association of School Film Libraries, Inc., for a conference on the distribution of motion picture films; \$4,500 for the use of the American Youth Commission for a study of work camps and their relation to general education; \$1,440 for a fellowship for George Cronemeyer to prepare an annotated bibliography in general education, the fellowship to be available for a twelve-month period beginning October 1, 1939.

A survey by the American Schools Association, in which 18,000 prospective college students in New York and Chicago were interviewed, reveals marked differences in those who entered this fall from their prototypes of ten years ago. *The New York Journal and American* summarizes the changes as follows: "First, a much greater number of today's students start out with a definite career in view and plan their studies toward a specific

objective. Secondly, this season's crop is much more job-minded. Thirdly, college boys and girls of the present day are more serious. Further, they read more books and periodicals . . . display greater interest in national affairs . . . go to movies less . . . are three months younger and about a quarter of an inch taller . . . spend approximately \$210 less for education . . . 22 per cent of the girls hoped to find student employment . . . 30 per cent of the boys hoped to support themselves while attending college."

A new periodical, the *Public Personnel Quarterly*, has been issued under the sponsorship of the New York City Civil Service Commission. It will publish original articles concerned with practical phases of public personnel administration and will also present digests of significant books, monographs, and journal and magazine articles.

Meetings of Regional Associations

A round-table discussion was a feature of the meeting of the *Arkansas Registrars*. This discussion concerned (a) Admissions, (b) The Place of the Registrar in College Guidance, (c) Tests and Personnel Program, and (d) Uniformity of Course Numbering for All Arkansas Colleges.

The following officers were elected to serve during the ensuing year: President, H. E. Eldridge, Arkansas State College, Jonesboro, Arkansas; and Secretary, Mrs. Clarine Snow Longstreth, Little Rock Junior College, Little Rock, Arkansas.

CLARINE SNOW LONGSTRETH

The first meeting of the *Conference of Chicago Registrars* was held at DePaul University on November 29. Forty representatives of colleges in this area were present.

Mr. John C. McHugh, Registrar of De Paul University, presided and introduced Mr. Enock C. Dyrness, Registrar of Wheaton College, who presented a paper on "Student Probation Practices." A discussion of this paper followed the address.

M. FRANCES MCELROY

The *Colorado-Wyoming Association of Collegiate Registrars* met at the Colorado State College of Agricultural and Mechanical Arts.

Miss Lucy Spicer presented a paper on "Course Numbers and Their Significance." "Reflections of an Ex-Registrar" was the subject of the address by Dr. Nelson, former Registrar of the University of Denver, and now Dean of the Graduate School.

Election of officers resulted in the following members being chosen: President, Mrs. Norma K. Snyder, Assistant Registrar, University of Colo-

rado; Vice-President, R. M. Carson, Registrar, Colorado State College of Education; Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Elizabeth M. Thamer, Registrar, Colorado Woman's College.

ELIZABETH M. THAMER

The seventeenth meeting of the *Illinois Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at North Central College, Naperville, Illinois, October 26-27, 1939.

Six interesting papers were presented during the session: "Future Trends in Student Enrollment," by Dr. Newton Edwards, of the University of Chicago; "Selective Admission," by President E. J. Sparling, of Central Y.M.C.A.; "Occupational Research or Vocational Guidance," by Lester J. Schloerb, Director of Occupational Research, Chicago Public Schools; "Changing Conceptions of Teachers Colleges," by President R. W. Fairchild, of Illinois State Normal University; "Attitudes toward Extension Credits," by D. A. Grossman, Examiner, University of Illinois; and "A Study in Curriculum," by Sister M. Fidelis, Registrar of Rosary College. Three of the papers indicated a critical attitude toward the work now being done by institutions of higher education, and pointed out the necessity for considering the special objectives which institutions hold in relation to the demands which future employers would make if they were to employ the graduates. The remaining papers presented changes which have occurred and which will affect enrolment.

The Association accepted the invitation of Mr. G. W. Swanbeck, of Augustana College, Rock Island, for 1940, and elected the following officers: President, Agness J. Kaufman, Lewis Institute, Chicago, Illinois; Vice-President, E. C. Seyler, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois; Secretary-Treasurer, Blanche C. Thomas, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois.

M. FRANCES McELROY

The seventeenth annual meeting of the *Kansas Association of Collegiate Registrars and Advanced Standing Committees* was held at the Municipal University of Wichita, on October 28, 1939.

The first half of the meeting was devoted to a joint session with the Kansas Association of College Deans and to the report of the Committee of Accrediting Standards, of which Dean L. Hekhuis was chairman. Professor U. G. Mitchell of the University of Kansas discussed the relation between high schools and colleges in mathematics, and Sister Jerome of Mt. St. Scholastica College reported on her study of the course offerings and the number of teachers in Departments of Home Economics in Kansas colleges. Dean Deere of Bethany College gave the results of a questionnaire on the relationship between upper and lower division courses.

The meeting of the registrars was presided over by Vice-President Beulah Pocock. Miss Pocock presented Sister Mary Nicholas of Marymount College, who spoke on "Transcripts"; Allen Wikgren of Ottawa University, who discussed "Who Should and Who Should Not be Admitted to College?"; Gladys Phinney of Washburn College, who presented a paper on "Accreditation of Courses"; and S. V. Dalton of Fort Hays Kansas State College, who spoke on "What Is the B.S. Degree?"

The officers for the coming year are as follows: President, Estelle Dougherty, Sterling College, Sterling, Kansas; Vice-President, Allen Wikgren, Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kansas; Secretary, Sister Ann Elizabeth, St. Mary College, Leavenworth, Kansas; Treasurer, Gladys Phinney, Washburn College, Topeka, Kansas.

SISTER ANN ELIZABETH

The *Association of Kentucky Registrars* held its annual meeting on October 28, 1939, at the University of Kentucky.

Mr. Ernest H. Canon, of Western State Teachers College, presented a paper entitled "The Present Status of Mathematics Requirements for College Entrance," which was discussed by V. F. Payne, of Transylvania College, and Dean John Montgomery, of Lees Junior College. Dean J. J. Oppenheimer, of the University of Louisville, spoke on "General Courses in College." Mr. Ralph E. Hill, of the University of Louisville, gave a report on the New York meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars.

The following officers were elected: President, C. R. Wimmer, Union College; Vice-President, Sister M. Irmina, Villa Madonna College; and Secretary-Treasurer, Jessie Wilson, University of Kentucky.

JESSIE WILSON

The *Association of Wisconsin Registrars* met in Madison, Wisconsin, on October 27, in the Memorial Union of the University of Wisconsin. Thirty-nine of the forty-two colleges were represented.

The following topics were discussed: "Report of the National Meeting of Registrars," by Dr. Curtis Merriman, Registrar of the University of Wisconsin; "Guidance of College Students," by Professor John P. Treacy, Department of Education, Marquette University; "Accomplishments of University Students," Professor C. A. Smith, Secretary of the Faculty, University of Wisconsin; "The New Certification Regulations," Assistant Superintendent J. F. Waddell, Office of Public Instruction; "The Student Employment Bureau," by Mrs. V. W. Meloche, Manager, Student Employment Bureau, University of Wisconsin.

The 1940 meeting will be held in Milwaukee in connection with the Wisconsin Educational Association meeting during the first week in November.

The following officers were elected for the coming year: President, Father F. F. DuPont, Registrar, St. Norbert College, West DePere; Secretary, Lora Greene, Registrar, State Teachers College, La Crosse.

GERTRUDE M. O'BRIEN

The nineteenth convention of the *Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at the Hotel Adolphus, Dallas, Texas, on October 20 and 21.

Representatives from forty-five Texas colleges and one Texas high school were in attendance. During the first session, three interesting papers were presented: "Practice in Admitting Students by Transfer in American Colleges and Universities," by J. B. Moorman of Austin College; "The High School Transcript from the Viewpoint of the High School," by Mrs. Edith Breeding of Stephen F. Austin High School, Houston, Texas; and "The High School Transcript from the Viewpoint of the College," by W. P. Clement, of Texas Technological College. Charles S. Wilkins of John Tarleton Agricultural College reported on the New York meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars.

At the banquet session, John H. McGinnis of Southern Methodist University addressed the group. One of the outstanding features of the evening meeting was a session of the Add and Drop College, which was presided over by E. J. Howell of Texas Agricultural and Mechanical College. The Saturday morning meeting featured an open forum, presided over by D. A. Shirley of West Texas State Teachers College, and the reports of the Special Committees.

The officers elected for next year are as follows: President, F. M. Allen, Baylor University; Vice-President, Fred H. Junkin, Schreiner Institute; Secretary-Treasurer, Max Fichtenbaum, University of Texas.

MAX FICHTENBAUM

The sixteenth annual meeting of the *North Carolina Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at the O. Henry Hotel, Greensboro, North Carolina, on October 23, 1939.

The meeting was called to order by President Herring, who presented Dean W. H. Wannamaker of Duke University. In his address on "The Registrar," Dr. Wannamaker ably discussed the duties of the Registrar and presented a challenge to educational research. Mr. W. L. Mayer of North Carolina State College and Mr. E. L. Setzler of Lenoir Rhyne College gave reports on the 1939 meeting of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars. An informal discussion of questions constantly arising in the Registrar's office concerning college regulations and requirements followed the formal discussion.

The nominating committee gave its report, which resulted in the following election of officers: President, Col. T. O. Wright, Oak Ridge Col-

lege; Vice-President, Dr. H. J. McGinnis, East Carolina Teachers College; Secretary-Treasurer, Hazel Morrison, Flora Macdonald College.

HAZEL MORRISON

The third annual meeting of the *Missouri Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at the Coronado Hotel, St. Louis, Missouri, on November 16, 1939. Twenty-five institutions were represented by approximately forty registrars and assistants.

Workshops were conducted on the following subjects: (a) "The Proper Evaluation of Transfer Credits," (b) "The Personnel Functions of the Registrar," and (c) "The Duties of the Registrar."

The following officers were appointed for the year 1939-40: President, George W. Lamke, Registrar of Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri; Secretary, C. E. Evans, Registrar of the University of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri.

ELMA POOLE

The thirteenth annual meeting of the *Nebraska Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at Nebraska Wesleyan University on November 18, and was attended by thirty-five representatives from sixteen Nebraska colleges. Virginia Zimmer of the University of Nebraska presented a report of the National Convention held in New York. Mr. Rosene, Director of Certification of the Department of Public Instruction, explained the new certification laws, and in the informal discussion which followed answered several questions. Charles Maruth, of the University of Iowa, spoke on "Time Savers and Mechanical Devices." Following Mr. Maruth's address opportunity was given to inspect the exhibit of office forms and filing equipment on display from the national convention.

Officers elected for the coming year were: President, Florence I. McGahey, University of Nebraska, Lincoln; Vice-President, Verne S. Sweedlun, Luther College, Wahoo; Secretary-Treasurer, Alice C. Smith, Municipal University of Omaha.

MABEL R. HAYS

The ninth meeting of the *Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held on November 25, at Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, New Jersey. The President of the Association, P. F. Banmiller, Registrar of Villanova College, presided at the meeting, which fifty-four members attended.

"The Objectives of a Regional Association of Collegiate Registrars" were discussed by Carrie Mae Probst, of Goucher College. Miss Probst was one of the founders of the Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars, which grew out of an earlier organization started in Maryland by Willard M. Hillegeist, of the University of Maryland, and Miss Probst.

"The Uniform College Admissions Blank" was the subject of a paper given by Floyd E. Harshman, Principal of the High School at Nutley, New Jersey, and Chairman of the Uniform Blank Committee of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Mr. Harshman distributed copies of the blank which his committee had presented at the general meeting for discussion and criticisms.

William S. Hoffman, Registrar of Pennsylvania State College and President of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, spoke on "The Registrar—Whence and Whither." Reference was made to the status of the registrar in former years, to the work of a number of men who helped to develop the office to its present level of usefulness and importance, and also to a group of prominent educators who went out from registrars' offices to positions of greater prominence.

An open forum was led by J. G. Quick, Registrar of the University of Pittsburgh. Mr. Quick offered for discussion topics which had been brought to his attention by members of the Association.

These topics were as follows: The Question of Scholarships: (a) practices and procedures, (b) on what basis should scholarships be granted so as to avoid suspicion of rate cutting?; Advanced Standing Procedures: (a) transfers from institutions in the U.S.A., (b) transfers from foreign schools; Use of quality point system to determine graduation; and Problems of tardy grade reporting, of reduced catalog costs, of absences—checking, recording, and administering penalties.

The following were elected officers of the Association for the ensuing year: President, Rebecca Tansil, State Teachers College, Towson, Maryland; Vice-President, Arthur S. Cooley, Moravian College for Women; Secretary-Treasurer, Mrs. Hazel C. Quantin, The Packer Collegiate Institute.

IRENE M. DAVIS

The Minnesota-Dakota Association of College Registrars held their annual meeting at South Dakota State College, Brookings, South Dakota on October 19 and 20. The evening program included an address of welcome by Dr. Charles Pugsley, President of South Dakota State College, and was followed by an informal round-table discussion of mutual problems. At the Friday morning meeting, with President R. O. Wilson presiding, the following papers were presented: "A Delegate's Report on the National Convention," by Leona Nelson, University of Minnesota; "The Founding and Development of the Association of Registrars," by A. H. Parrott of North Dakota State College; "Determinants of Freshman Classes with Special Reference to Rochester," by Hazel Creal of Rochester Junior College; "Uniform Admission Blanks for Reporting High School Records," by M. A. Chase of Dakota Wesleyan University; and "Recent Trends in

"Collegiate Enrolment," by Clara H. Koenig, University of Minnesota. The afternoon program included discussions on "Basic Trends of Social Change in South Dakota," by W. F. Kumlien, Professor of Sociology, South Dakota State College; "Recent Trends in Teachers College Curricula," by Mabel Parker, Bemidji Teachers College; and "Organization of the Registrar's Office in a Small Institution," by D. B. Doner, of South Dakota State College. A question-box discussion followed with Alice Montgomery of Madison Teachers College presiding.

On the recommendation of the nominating committee, the Secretary was instructed to cast a ballot for the following officers for 1939-40: President Hazel H. Creal, Rochester Junior College, Rochester; Vice-President, H. Merle Parsons, South Dakota School of Mines, Rapid City; Secretary-Treasurer, True E. Pettengill, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

T. E. PETTENGILL

The *Pacific Coast Association of Collegiate Registrars* met in San Francisco, California, on November 12, 13 and 14. During the session in the morning, a discussion meeting was held, over which Dean Newhouse presided. The general topic for this discussion was "Inter-Institutional Relationships; Admission Trends and Policies; Junior-Senior College Relationships; Transfers; and Transcripts." At the afternoon session, the general topics for discussion were: "Counseling as Related to the Registrar's Office; Educational and Vocational Guidance; Testing Programs and Their Uses; Advisors' Systems; and "Treatment of Scholastic Deficiencies." At the Tuesday morning meeting a discussion on "Registrars' Office Techniques" was led by Dr. Karl M. Cowdery, Associate Registrar of Stanford University. The officers for the year 1939-40 are as follows: President, Dean Newhouse, University of Washington; Secretary, Eva Blackwell, Oregon State College.

MARY LEONARD

The twelfth annual meeting of the *South Carolina Association of Collegiate Registrars* was held at Limestone College, Gaffney, South Carolina, on December 1. Twenty-nine persons, representing the sixteen institutions, attended the meeting. The morning session was presided over by President C. A. Haskew, and the proceedings included discussions on "Preliminary Report of Freshman Testing Program," by Lt. Col. L. A. Prouty; Dr. D. C. Agnew, Registrar, Coker College; John G. Kelly, Registrar, Winthrop College; and W. C. McCall, Associate Professor of Education, University of South Carolina. The South Carolina College Testing Program which is sponsored by the Registrars is now in its fourth year with seventeen colleges participating. The following papers were presented: "The Functional Concepts of the Work of the Registrar," by Millard E. Gladfelter, Registrar

of Temple University, and "What Can be Done with the Low Ranking Freshman," by G. E. Metz, Registrar, Clemson College. At the afternoon session W. Flinn Gilland, Assistant Registrar, University of South Carolina, spoke on "What Can Be Done with the High Ranking Freshman"; W. D. Nixon, State High School Inspector discussed "Curricula Trends in South Carolina High Schools as Related to College Entrance Requirements"; and "Faculty-Registrar Relations" were considered by Julia Long, of Winthrop College.

The following officers were elected for the coming year: President, C. A. Haskew, Registrar, Lander College; Vice-President, John G. Kelly, Registrar, Winthrop College; Secretary, Dora Harrington, Winthrop College; Treasurer, Mendel S. Fletcher, Registrar, Furman University.

DORA HARRINGTON

The Eighth Educational Conference of the *Educational Records Bureau* and affiliated organizations was held at the Hotel Roosevelt, New York City, on October 26 and 27. Regarded as one of the most stimulating educational conferences in the East, it again attracted a large representation of teachers and administrators from secondary schools and colleges over a wide area.

"Modernizing Records for Guidance and Transfer" was the title of the paper presented by Eugene R. Smith, Headmaster of the Beaver Country Day School. Dr. Smith described the success with which the more detailed personnel records are being used for guidance purposes in the schools and colleges co-operating with the eight-year experimental study of the Progressive Education Association. President W. H. Cowley of Hamilton College discussed "The College Admissions Situation Today" and indicated that the unit system is on its way out and that few mourn its passing. The three things necessary for success in college, according to Dr. Cowley, are the mastery of the fundamentals of English, the ability to read with a reasonable degree of comprehension and speed, and the ability to apply oneself adequately to a given task. Marion E. Park, President of Bryn Mawr College, spoke at the Thursday luncheon meeting on "Some Values of Progressive Education for Women."

Among the speakers at the Friday morning session was Miss Florence L. Goodenough of the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota. Her paper on the topic "Can We Influence Mental Growth?" was a critique of recent experiments in this area and was in a sense a criticism of the findings of Dr. George D. Stoddard which were reported at the Educational Records Bureau Conference a year ago. It was Miss Goodenough's contention that changes in I.Q. may be the result of a number of factors, including errors of measurement, nascent abilities that have been unde-

veloped before, and the recognition that in individual cases there may be actual growth in mental function.

Superintendent A. J. Stoddard, of the Philadelphia public schools, discussed "The Selection of Teachers from the National Viewpoint." He described the plan of the National Committee on Teacher Education which will be put into effect in the Spring of 1940 whereby teachers who are seeking appointment will be given an opportunity to take a battery of tests to reveal the standard of achievement attained in various fields. Testing centers will be established in different parts of the country and, until the program becomes self-supporting, the Carnegie Corporation will underwrite a large share of the expense of administration.

At the Friday luncheon meeting, Dr. Luther H. Gulick, Professor of Municipal Science and Administration at Columbia University, spoke on "Education and the Future of the Public Service." He noted that in recent years there has been a definite shift from negative, defensive war to a constructive program so far as public service is concerned. According to Dr. Gulick, the guiding principles that should determine the selection of persons for public office are capability and ability to grow in the job. The concluding addresses of the Conference were "The Status of Personality Measurement Today," by Robert G. Bernreuter of Pennsylvania State College, and "Parents and Cumulative Records," by Robert N. Hilkert, of the Hill School.

FRANKLIN I. SHEEDER

The twentieth annual meeting of the *American Association of Junior Colleges* will be held at Columbia, Missouri, February 29 and March 1 and 2, 1940.

In connection with the New York meeting of the *Association of Urban Universities*, a new organization, the Association of Deans and Directors of University Evening Schools, was formally instituted at a special meeting of about twenty-five deans and directors on October 25. Officers were elected for 1939-40 as follows: President, Director Vincent H. Drufner, University of Cincinnati; Vice-President, Dr. A. Caswell Ellis, Cleveland College; Secretary-Treasurer, Director W. T. Spivey, Drexel Institute of Technology. Additional members of the Executive Committee are: Dr. Lewis A. Froman, University of Buffalo, and Dr. Royce West, University of Omaha.

BOOK REVIEWS

Studies in Early Graduate Education, The Johns Hopkins University, Clark University, The University of Chicago, Ryan, W. Carson, New York, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1939, Bulletin Number Thirty, pp. viii + 167.

In the preface to this book, Walter A. Jessup, President of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, asks the question, "What, if anything, can we learn from the early experiences of these acknowledged American pioneers? Were their achievements such that they may throw light on the problems we face in the university on the graduate level today?" The "pioneers" were the Johns Hopkins University, Clark University and the University of Chicago, headed by Daniel C. Gilman, G. Stanley Hall and William Rainey Harper, respectively.

"That universities are made possible by men rather than buildings was the principle insisted upon by all three of these pioneering institutions in the early days," Mr. Ryan says. "At Johns Hopkins the donor's sole condition—that the capital gift must not be used for construction of plant—helped to place the emphasis immediately upon the human beings in the educational enterprise. . . . How effective the Johns Hopkins selection of students must have been is partly indicated by the fact that the Baltimore institution soon came to be the place from which faculty were recruited for Harvard, Yale, and other American universities. Of sixty-nine persons who received the doctor's degree from Hopkins in the first ten years, fifty-six secured positions on the staffs of thirty-two universities and colleges."

Emphasis upon selection of faculty and students was equally marked at Clark University and there is no question that Dr. Hall brought together for certain departments of study and research a teaching force then unequalled in the country. "Elbow-teaching" in the laboratory, individual guidance, clubs, conferences and seminaries practically replaced the lecture as a teaching device. According to the author, survivors from the old Worcester days seldom speak without exaggeration of the seminary conducted for many years by G. Stanley Hall himself. William Rainey Harper likewise devoted an inordinate amount of his time and energy to the task of selecting the faculty. In Chicago, a magnificent university logically planned and organized, sprang to life full-grown, a monument to the creative genius and almost superhuman drive of President Harper.

Mr. Ryan continues, "In all three of the universities reviewed in this study there were various elements in the program that had special bearing on the success of the university in its pioneering days—at Hopkins, for

example, the use of outside lecturers and the establishment of the scholarly journals; at Clark, President Hall's seminary; at Chicago, the development of the University of Chicago Press. The small numbers of the early days were a distinct advantage. But the factors that counted most heavily seem to have been the three that have been stressed in this concluding section—the effort to make university education more adequately meet the needs of the times; the precedence given to the human beings in the educational enterprise—teachers and students—rather than buildings, equipment, and administrative machinery, together with conditions of teaching and learning that go with this emphasis upon persons; and the placing of educational leadership in the hands of highly qualified men carefully selected for their knowledge of education and determined to have the highest possible quality in the educational process."

University education in the United States is young but it has become "big business," as Dr. Jessup says, and questions concerning its present problems and future development are pressing. This bulletin attempts to give a partial answer to these questions by presenting a discussion of the principles and methods of the three institutions which broke with tradition and tried, each in its own way, to answer the need of the times. It provides exciting reading for anyone engaged in the administration of institutions of higher education.

IRENE M. DAVIS, *John Hopkins University*

The American State University, Foerster, Norman, Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1937, pp. vii + 287.

Most of us have somewhere a list of books which we hope to get around to reading. This book has been on your reviewer's list for some time, and when he finally did pick it up, he found it so electrifying that he hastens to bring it to you, with apologies for not having done so sooner. If you read the book you will be charmed or infuriated, depending upon your personal bias in the matter of liberal versus special education. But you will not be indifferent, and you will not be bored.

The state university is the target of Dean Foerster's attack, not because of any inherent weakness in its structure, but because of the lengths to which it has gone in the diversification of its offerings. "Responding to the equalitarian spirit of Jackson and the frontier, rather than the selective spirit of Jefferson and the framers of the Constitution, they were inclined to offer . . . all sorts of practical education to all sorts of people. They were primarily organs for the exploitation of a continent by a race of pioneers. . . . Too many vocations low in the scale were provided for; . . . too many students with low vocational aims came to the universities and fixed more firmly the commercial character of these institutions. As might have been foreseen, the lower the vocation the more likely it was

to attract . . . students who had no intention of interesting themselves in the true philosophy underlying their proposed life-business, who in the classroom became dim-eyed and listless the moment the professor spoke of general principles, because all they wanted was a convenient set of rules and tricks to help them gain a position and hold it. Utility must be exceedingly direct. Each item of information should have its cash value plainly stamped upon its face. . . . Naturally, under these circumstances, study was anything but eager. . . . Students who made a half-hearted choice of some kind of vocational or professional training were not likely to be dedicated spirits. While the college activities were beyond question activities, the college studies were in large measure passivities. The tendency was marked to regard knowledge as something to be absorbed in the classroom. . . . Higher education meant, essentially, not attainment of some body of knowledge about nature and man, but acquirement of a certain way of using the mind—the scientific way. . . . As education for efficiency progressed, it became apparent that an enthusiasm for serving society was not developing among the students on the campus or among the alumni who took their place with the go-getters that set the tone of American life. There was a sentimental unreality about the service, in marked contrast to the solid substance of the power. And the power itself was of a low order, the power of machines rather than intelligences. . . . The old education had aimed at the liberation of powers of mind and personality, whereas the new education aimed primarily and directly at efficiency in doing some particular thing. . . . The old education was liberal; the new, servile. . . . If education was to be servile rather than liberal, if collegiate study was to be instrumental rather than formative, the old traditional curriculum, definite and limited, must be superseded by a vast new structure or conglomeration that could provide room for everything imaginable, and should be extensible in view of unimaginable things to be provided later."

The net results of this attitude, of course, was an artificially inflated valuation placed upon scraps of information and the mechanics of educational recording. "Once a credit was earned, it was as safe as anything in the world. It would be deposited and indelibly recorded in the registrar's savings-bank, while the substance of the course could be, if one wished, happily forgotten. Each course culminated in a final examination; if one knew one's stuff then, one need never know it again. In a subject like required English a student deficient in ability might, with effort, get a passing grade and then, without effort, lapse into semi-illiteracy; yet the record would show, to the day of doom, that he could read and write passably. . . . Despite its insistence upon definiteness, the literal mind is usually a vague mind. The books and articles which it produces . . . are not only dull and pedestrian . . . but astonishingly low in intellectual tone,

the work of unbraced minds, crude, loose, illogical, at times illiterate. . . . Certainly a scientist equipped for his task should be incapable of beginning a chapter in a book named *Educational Sociology* with a definition that reads: 'Educational sociology is what sociology can do for education.' The remedy for such ineptness is not a course in Educationist English, nor even a general course in English grammar and syntax, for the difficulty concerns far more than the art of putting words together. What, one may well ask, is the 'correlation' of such feeble expression and the total intellectual quality of the writer? Is one not justified in questioning whether a mind that behaves in this manner can cope with any large and difficult problem, no matter how full the statistical data 'is'?"

The economic collapse of 1929 brought about a sharp re-evaluation of educational objectives. "Tools are not useful unless there is opportunity for using them, as students promptly realized. . . . Of what use, they asked, is power if we have no chance to serve? Does it not appear that a 'practical' education, so long in favor, is today an impractical education? Is there not some other kind of education . . . that will be a sound investment no matter what we may do in the uncertain years that lie ahead? . . . What of leisure, enforced or learned, in the new era we are entering—does not this imply an education for living as well as an education for making a living? What is culture, and is there anything in it? . . . Is there no training for personality, for ideals, for values?" This questioning spirit is far-reaching and compelling. . . . The time has come, it would seem, not for further uncritical attempts to enlarge the pattern, but rather for a stream of fresh thought that might help us wisely to alter the pattern. The time has come when social prudence dictates, not the fixation of our inherited idea of a state university, but a free and creative reconsideration, conducted in view of the permanent nature of man as well as the special concerns of the time, of what should be the rôle of higher education in a constitutional democracy."

"If higher education is to deserve the name, it cannot be brought within the reach of the ineducable and the passively educable. To attempt to educate such students at the university, even at the present denatured university, is either to discourage or delude them. . . . In its healthy estate, higher education is concerned with the fit, the large number of robust young men and women who are able to think, able to feel, able to liberate themselves. In a redistribution of education a maximum share should go to them. They should be given every encouragement to stay in college through four years, and many of them should then be urged to enter the graduate and professional schools, the presence of which on the campus produces an effect as tonic as the presence of a 'General College' (for an equivalent number of the unfit) is debilitating. The intellectually robust are, I think, a much larger body than is usually supposed. The mind that

is capable of enough liberal education to justify the effort is not rare; it is common. If it seems rare in the university today, this is because it is stunted or warped by immersion in the low-average of job-hunting students, by financial stringency and the distractions of earning one's way, by a faculty that feels obliged to deal with average students as they actually are, and by curricula which take the vocations seriously and culture frivolously."

"The background of our American education for power and service . . . is the humanitarian tradition that grew up in Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The American state university has now carried the educational implications of that tradition to something like completion. The background of the old American liberal education, and of any new liberal education we may hereafter seek to set up, is the humanistic and religious tradition which governed the culture of Europe prior to the seventeenth century and then gradually declined in prestige, though to this day it retains a vitality that is commonly underestimated. . . . Human culture, not mechanical efficiency, is still the central object; the formation of men and women is still insisted upon as a prerequisite to the formation of experts. Europe is not lightly abandoning, even under the impact of three centuries of increasing humanitarianism, the old liberal education stretching back something like twenty-five centuries. . . . Human knowledge is . . . self-knowledge, direct, intuitive, subjective. And yet from the personal experience of many individuals something more emerges than a mere chaos of conflicting observations. While we are single persons, we are also human beings, endowed with similar traits and confronted with similar conditions of living. Through the ages of recorded history the unity of human nature is so marked that we say there is nothing new under the sun. Those who assert that human nature is going to be different tomorrow are nearly always deficient in knowledge of the past. . . . The progress of the individual toward a fulfilled personality . . . is the very opposite of selfish progress, since every increase of self-control limits further that temperamental imperialism which we call selfishness. . . . All men who have attained a high degree of inner order and justice and peace will tend to produce, in their social relations, outer order and justice and peace. . . . In the pursuit of this human knowledge lies our surest way of transcending the bewilderment of a world that has acquired all the talents except the talent to make use of them."

If you read Dean Foerster's book and check the foregoing excerpts in it, you will be astonished at the very considerable liberties that have been taken both in their selection and their arrangement. It is hoped, however, that these liberties have not resulted in presenting a distorted version of Dr. Forester's position. The book bristles with ideas which deserve—and will command—thoughtful and serious consideration.

IN THE JOURNALS

"The Effect of Part-Time Employment on the Scholarship Rating of College Students," Martha Shaffner, *School and Society*, Vol. 50, No. 1295, October 21, 1939—P. 541.

A group of 610 students in Kansas State Teachers College was divided into three divisions: non-workers, employed less than four hours a week; moderate workers, employed six to twenty-one hours a week; and hard workers employed twenty-four or more hours. The three groups were practically equal according to college entrance tests. It was found that the moderate workers ranked highest in academic success; the hard working group second; and the non-workers third.

"An Experiment in the Professional Examination of Teachers," M. Ernest Townsend, *School and Society*, Vol. 50, No. 1295, October 21, 1939—P. 537.

Those who are employed in teacher training institutions will be interested in the details of an experiment to be followed in the selection of candidates for teaching positions. The experiment has the co-operation of The Carnegie Corporation, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, The Co-operative Test Service of the American Council of Education, and a group of superintendents from fifteen to twenty of the largest and best organized city school systems of the country. The examinations will first be given in the experimental centers on March 29 and 30, 1940.

"Objectionable Practices of Accrediting Agencies," Jno. J. Tigert, *School and Society*, Vol. 50, No. 1291, September 23, 1939—P. 406.

A joint committee on accrediting of the Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities and the National Association of State Universities has been studying the work of accrediting agencies with the hope that there will result some constructive measures, and positive relief to the institutions. Among the criticisms enumerated were: First, there are too many accrediting agencies; second, the agencies are invading the rights of the institutions and are destroying institutional freedom; third, those agencies tend to put institutions in a strait-jacket; fourth, the costs of the agencies are becoming excessive; fifth, there is too much duplication in accrediting agencies; sixth, sometimes they do not confine themselves to a study of the particular field in which they purport to be engaged but attempt to pass upon other unrelated activities; seventh, the standards of accrediting agencies are now largely outmoded; eighth, something of

the guild system or trade unionism seems to be invading the accrediting movement.

"The Outlook for Support of Higher Education from Endowment," Harry L. Wells, *The Educational Record*, Vol. XX, No. 4, October 1939—P. 549.

The first half of this article is devoted to tables and summaries dealing with endowment trends and incomes. The conclusions are that gifts and bequests have shown a significant drop in the past ten years. Income has decreased from 6 per cent to less than 3 per cent. Federal obligations that formerly paid from 3 to 4 per cent now actually yield negative returns and in most cases around 1 per cent.

In spite of the outlook, the author claims to be far from discouraged and prophesies that the immediate outlook for support of higher education from endowment is as bright as at any previous time. Institutions have brought income and expenditures into alignment and programs have not been seriously curtailed. Through favorable tax exemptions large gifts and bequests will be forthcoming. Evidence indicates future returns will be larger than at present.

"What Good are Endowments," Robert Maynard Hutchins, *Saturday Evening Post*, November 11, 1939—P. 8.

After presenting statistics that illustrate the decline in endowments and prospects for future gifts, the author states that endowed universities might as well forget their endowments. The future of these funds is so speculative that no program can be based upon them. There must be reduction of expenses and discovery of new sources of income. Further reduction in expenses will be difficult to make, as retrenchment the past few years has affected the budgets of all endowed schools. The solution cannot be found in cutting wages and salaries, but through the reconsideration of the organization and function of the university. Illustrations are given to indicate that inertia and vanity influence unnecessary costs and the solution is in the migration of students, co-operation and consolidation of universities. The difficulties in working out such programs are presented in the light of the present scramble for students. Under certain conditions capital has been used and perhaps should be used to tide over depressions. Another remedy is to broaden popular support, through larger numbers of small annual gifts for operating expenses. In conclusion the author deals with the functions of endowed universities and their relations to publicly supported institutions.

"The Residence Requirements for the Doctor's Degree," Edward A. Fitzpatrick, *Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. X, No. 7, October 1939—P. 381.

This is a summary of replies received in a questionnaire sent to the institutional members of the Association of Universities. The questions covered such matters as: length of graduate study for Ph.D., minimum and average; length of period of candidacy; minimum of residence study; any special requirement as to credit; relation of Master's study to Doctor's degree; special time of residence; and enrolment for the Doctor's degree. In conclusion the author has formulated a comprehensive regulation covering all the points listed.

"Accrediting Procedures in a Democracy," George P. Tuttle and Arthur W. Clevenger, *North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. XIV, No. 2, October 1939—P. 172.

Four topics are discussed: 1. Should the Association discontinue the accrediting of schools and the publication of approved schools. 2. Is there need for change and what changes should be made in the accrediting procedures. 3. Should pressure be brought to bear on unsatisfactory situations as they relate to high schools and institutions of higher education. 4. What legal basis has the Association for the accrediting of schools. The conclusions are: 1. Extensive use is being made of the published lists of approved schools. 2. Admissions officers would like to see the accrediting of schools continued. 3. The lists are valuable to school superintendents and principals. 4. There is need for continued study of the methods and procedures used by the Association in accrediting schools. 5. The Association can render service by bringing pressure and public opinion to bear on unsatisfactory situations. 6. The Association is expected to direct studies of various kinds. 7. While it has no legal basis for accrediting of institutions, the Association has certain rights and privileges in the enforcement of conditions for membership which the courts will respect. 8. Action taken at the annual meeting which involves the dropping of a school should not take effect until June 30 of the year in which the action is taken.

"The Recruiting Problem," James M. Wood, *The Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. X, No. 8, November 1939—P. 412.

A recent study lists at least thirteen agencies employed by larger institutions actively or passively engaged in recruiting students. Since the small colleges are not in a position to use most of these agencies they have found the personal representative to be the most effective and least expensive method in placing their educational program before educators, students and parents. The remainder of the article is an argument justifying the "field man" and his activities for the college.

"Selecting Graduate Students," William J. Brink, *The Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. X, No. 8, November 1939—P. 425.

In 1900 there were less than six thousand students in graduate schools, in 1937 there were approximately eighty thousand. As a result of this increase one of the most difficult problems is that of developing effective admission procedures. A study of this question includes eighty-eight schools, involving such topics as administrative set-up for admission, criteria employed in selection, regulations established with reference to general nature of the student's undergraduate work and methods used in notifying students of admission. The results of the study indicate that graduate schools are confronted with four obligations: First, to decide as definitely as possible what these objectives are; second, to analyze these objectives in terms of the prerequisites which prospective students should possess; third, to select or develop techniques appropriate for the study of each applicant for admission; and fourth, to encourage only those to pursue graduate work for whom there is reasonable probability of success.

"Survey of 'New' College Plans," R. H. Eliassen, *The Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. X, No. 5, May 1939—P. 256.

The reader is surprised at the extent to which new programs are being developed today in colleges and universities. This study of college catalogues presents a general summary of this movement and then describes the plans that have been instituted in a large number of specific institutions.

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